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ABSTRACT

This synthesis of information about marketing and information dissemination of education-related products is divided into three parts: an overview of major writings, specific marketing strategies, and resources for further study. The first part opens with a definition of marketing as it relates to education. A review of the literature provides discussions of education-oriented marketing emphases and strategies, including the production orientation/sales orientation/change agent approach and tactics for building dissemination capacity. Specific marketing strategies for educational disseminators are described in the second section. Tactics for planning implementation of a marketing concept orientation include market structure analysis, needs analysis, monitoring of the educational environment, and promotion. The final part of the report presents resources for self-education in the form of a 43-page annotated bibliography divided into subject areas: definition of marketing, planning, information systems, consumer behavior, packaging and pricing, distribution, promotion, sales, product evaluation, case studies, and marketing games. Eight appendices provide reprints or outlines of key reports in specific areas including a systematic marketing audit, major segmentation variables, the discrepancy model, and channels of distribution. (SW)

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LITERATURE SYNTHESIS

"MARKETING: EXPLORING APPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL DISSEMINATION"

PREPARED BY LINDA REED
DIRECTOR, R&D INTERPRETATION SERVICE/RDx
CEMREL, INC.

IN COOPERATION WITH
CHARLES MOJKOWSKI AND CHERYL HUTCHINSON
NTS/TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE COMPONENT
STATE DISSEMINATION GRANTS PROGRAM EVALUATION PROJECT

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"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

IR007992

NTS Research Corporation
2634 Chapel Hill Blvd. 2 Durham, North Carolina 27707

PREFACE

When marketing emerged as the top choice of states surveyed earlier this year, as coordinator of TAC's first leadership workshop my immediate instinct was to conduct a search of the literature. My objectives then were two-fold: first, to stimulate thinking for the design of the workshop and, second, to review what had transpired to date between the fields of marketing and education. With few expectations, two searches were initiated--one through R.I.S.E. in Pennsylvania and the other through the E.R.C. in New Haven, Connecticut. The yield, as it turned out, was quite gratifying. In particular, both the ERIC and the A.B.I. files had several hits, and numerous other resources could be obtained through non-computerized search sources.

An annotated bibliography to share with workshop participants seemed worthwhile and appropriate. But, what seemed even more desirable would be to transform the literature into some kind of a tool--a handbook, of sorts--to complement the workshop presentations and interactions planned.

Then, fortuity smiled, and I was able to obtain the talents of Linda Reed, Director of the RDx R&D Interpretation Service, in attacking the task. She agreed to do the synthesis, despite extremely tight deadlines, and possessed those two essential ingredients in addition to the professional skills necessary: a personal interest in the topic of marketing and familiarity with educational dissemination.

The product that follows represents some very long hours and several concentrated telephone conversations but, more importantly, it is a real contribution in blending the marketing world with an educational dissemination orientation. It makes connections where some documents do not. It is by no means simple, but it avoids fabricating the complex. It sets forth the basics and stimulates independent follow through.

The synthesis is presented in three parts, with footnotes at the close of each. The first contains an overview of major writings and authors, the second dissects some of the specific strategies and the third focuses on resources for further study. Some of the pertinent references are included in an Appendix.

To Linda, we are indebted for a masterful job given the time frame and limited resources she had to perform the task. To you, TAC is pleased to present it as one piece of technical assistance to enhance the workshop proceedings.

CHERYL S. HUTCHINSON
NTS/Technical Assistance Component

5 December 1978

Part I--Marketing Strategies and Educational Dissemination: An Overview

Introduction

The question of whether or not marketing is a science has been a topic of great debate over the past three decades,[1] but the question of whether marketing should be a business-oriented activity has remained a matter upon which the marketing community has generally agreed. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines marketing as "the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer or user."[2]

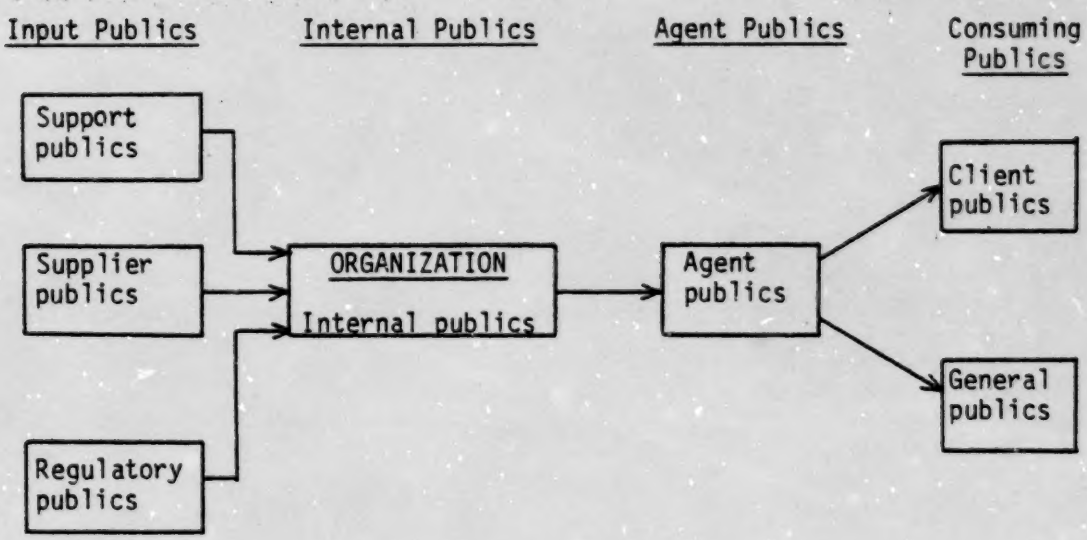
During the past decade, however, several marketing experts have voiced a concern that the AMA definition of "marketing" is too narrow, that many non-business-oriented groups would benefit from the application of marketing strategies to their activities. The first such group was the marketing staff of the Ohio State University.[3] Perhaps the most vocal advocate of this new position has been Philip Kotler, a professor of marketing at Northwestern University. In 1969 Kotler and Sidney J. Levy suggested that non-business organizations such as churches, schools, and fire departments have products and customers and do, in fact, engage in "marketing" activities. Kotler and Levy argued that

> the choice facing those who manage nonbusiness organizations is not whether to market or not to market, for no organization can avoid marketing. The choice is whether to do it well or poorly. . .[4]

In 1975, Kotler's Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (the first major marketing text which dealt exclusively with the nonprofit world--others simply devoted a chapter to it) offered a new definition of "marketing": "marketing is the effective management by an organization of its exchange relations with its various markets and publics."[5] Kotler went on to outline the main publics of any organization:

Figure I-1

The Main Publics of an Organization[6]



What is interesting about Kotler's definition of marketing is the necessity of a two-way flow--an exchange relation--with both input and output publics. This emphasis on two-way flow is certainly compatible with recent work in the dissemination field, particularly the Interstate

Project on Dissemination study. Although Kotler offered a chart showing the exchange relations for the four major kinds of organizations--business, service, mutual benefit, and commonweal(see Figure I-2)[7]--his descriptions did not deal specifically with the activities of state education agencies or of federally funded projects. Figure I-3 is an attempt to illustrate some of the basic exchange relations of a state capacity-building project. Note that the consuming publics in many instances can become input publics and vice versa; this is a common characteristic of public service agencies.

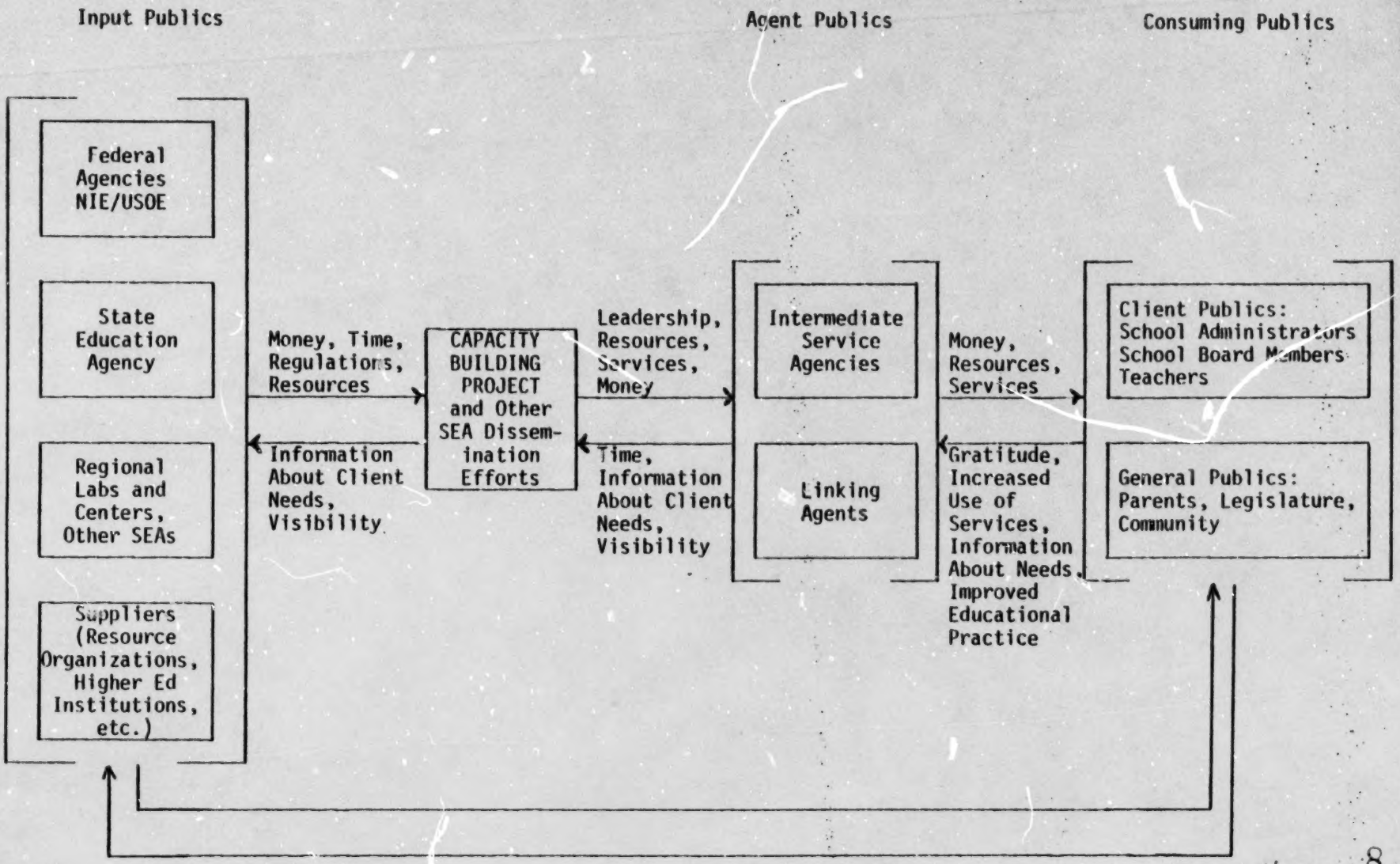
A Small but Persuasive Body of Literature

Most of the literature that has tried to link marketing strategies and the educational world has dealt with the marketing of school services (especially at higher education levels, where non-state-supported colleges and universities are having to deal with declining enrollments and sharply rising costs) and the marketing of educational R&D products. It is the latter body of literature that is of primary concern here--four major papers have been written on the subject. They will be briefly described and then will be drawn upon heavily as we discuss marketing strategies in detail.

In 1972, Philip Kotler and several of his colleagues wrote a preliminary report for a planning conference on the role that marketing might play in the newly formed National Institute of Education. The authors argued that use of marketing strategies could benefit NIE in its efforts to design and

Figure I-3

Exchange Relations of State Capacity-Building Projects


Input Publics
Agent Publics
Consuming Publics
Federal Agencies NIE/USOE
State Education Agency
Regional Labs and Centers, Other SEAs
Suppliers (Resource Organizations, Higher Ed Institutions, etc.)
Money, Time, Regulations, Resources
Information About Client Needs, Visibility
CAPACITY BUILDING PROJECT and Other SEA Dissemination Efforts
Leadership, Resources, Services, Money
Time, Information About Client Needs, Visibility
Intermediate Service Agencies
Linking Agents
Money, Resources, Services
Gratitude, Increased Use of Services, Information About Needs, Improved Educational Practice
Client Publics: School Administrators School Board Members Teachers
General Publics: Parents, Legislature, Community

disseminate useful educational R&D products. They discussed six marketing emphases that could be useful to NIE:

1. Marketing emphasizes understanding the behavioral system of the client and contains sophisticated methods for client system analysis.
2. Marketing emphasizes designing products in a way which will maximally satisfy the choice criteria of the adopters. Marketing contains many procedures for testing a product concept to bring it to a state of maximal readiness for dissemination.
3. Marketing emphasizes the development and selection of efficient channels for making the product available to those who are in a primary position to use and benefit from it.
4. Marketing emphasizes the test marketing of the product to bring it to better form before intense dissemination; and also observing it through the life cycle to reposition it or modify its features.
5. Marketing emphasizes the right selection of message, media and timing to optimize communication effectiveness.
6. Marketing emphasizes effective organizational arrangements in the form of motivated change agents and responsibility centers (product and marketing managers) for optimal planning, implementation, and control of program.[8]

In 1973, Richard Bateman applied Kotler's six points to the work of R&D agencies such as labs and centers. His contention was that the adoption of a marketing approach by the disseminators of educational R&D products

might well lead to a more effective way of getting educators to use such products. Bateman recognized the limitations of R&D agencies in this area and suggested a gradual implementation of a marketing approach:

> As R&D agencies we do not have the capacity to quickly develop a highly sophisticated marketing model leading to improved dissemination/installation programs. Our knowledge of fundamental processes of change, our tools of measurement and ability to segment audiences are too limited for short range success. But we do have the capacity to test and develop some preliminary procedures which should aid in immediate planning and at the same time identify those areas where significant research and development must be done in order to make our future planning more effective.[9]

The shift of the Federal emphasis from pure research and development in the 1950s to dissemination in the late 60s and to utilization, more recently, is described by Linda Sikorski and C.L. Hutchins in a paper developed for the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in 1974. This shift in emphasis, however, has not been accompanied by a correspondingly high increase in the rate of adoption of innovations:

> Numerous tactics have been employed to induce schools to use R&D products. Providing money for implementing new practices, training teachers and administrators, supplying information about new educational products, implementing new organizational arrangements, and so forth, have all been attempted. (See Havelock et al., 1969; Hood, 1973.) Large-scale, expensive efforts to spread the word about educational innovations have been attempted. Much of Title III of ESEA was directed toward dissemination, and many expected the Regional Laboratories to assume a key role in the dissemination process. The ERIC program represents a

> major federal effort to operate an information/dissemination system, and many smaller dissemination programs have been started on a regional or statewide basis.
>
> The outcomes of these efforts have been mixed. In some schools and communities there is evidence that people know more about innovations than before. Certain programs can point to evidence that changes were made partially or totally as a result of a dissemination effort. In retrospect, however, the story is one of less success: dissemination programs are shutting down for lack of support; evaluation data haven't produced conclusive results; users have not consistently cooperated with the service they are getting. Where there are adoptions, very little significant change corresponding to the intended consequences of innovations has occurred (Fullan, 1973).[10]

Sikorski and Hutchins go on in their paper to describe the marketing approach and to discuss in detail how the concepts of market segmentation and the discrepancy model (more on these concepts later) can be applied by R&D agencies in planning for dissemination and utilization of their products. The authors also report the results of empirical work done to apply the concept of market segmentation to educational change.

As part of the planning for the RDx, NIE commissioned the 2-volume Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations: Conceptual and Implementation Issues of a Regionally Based Nationwide System, which was published in 1977. In chapter six of the set, "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," Kotler and three colleagues, Bobby J. Calder, Brian Sternthal, and Alice M. Tybout, began by describing the evolution of alternative approaches to the exchange process:

When a production orientation is adopted, substantial R&D expenditures are allocated to producing "a better mousetrap." This orientation usually results in the availability of a wide range of products. A production philosophy guided the marketing efforts of the Office of Education during the 1950's and 1960's. Consistent with this orientation, resources were allocated primarily to research and development as opposed to product dissemination activities. The underlying assumption was that the production of new educational products that were superior to existing ones would essentially sell themselves.

When the failure to gain widespread new product acceptance and utilization indicated that there was little merit in the production philosophy, a sales orientation was adopted. With the establishment of NIE, focus centered not only on developing new educational products, but also insuring their dissemination by requiring that substantial resources be allocated to this task. The hope was that a strong advocacy by various laboratories, centers and Title III demonstration centers would enhance new product adoption and implementation. This hope failed to materialize. Indeed the rate of acceptance of new educational products when the sales orientation was employed was not appreciably different than that experienced when the production orientation had been the dominant philosophy of marketing.

In large measure, the failure of the sales orientation was attributed to the inappropriateness of advocacy by producers and other sellers in an educational context. A consensus developed that the role of dissemination could not be to advocate products, many of which might be of low quality. It made more sense to present users with information about products and to demonstrate the products, but not to advocate the products explicitly. The responsibility for actually choosing a product was placed on the user. The change agent advocacy philosophy seems to have provided a convenient rationale for this approach. It provides justification that the role of dissemination should be to make products accessible to those who are most disposed to adopting them. The final adoption level should be left up to the user system itself.

The adoption of a change agent advocacy approach in marketing education R&D products essentially meant providing tools to users. No attempt is made to

directly effect educational improvements; rather the strategy is to make available tools which, if accepted, will themselves foster change. The tool is what is important, not the user. This approach in its most basic form is the agricultural extension model. In this model, R&D efforts result in miracle products which are truly "innovations" or at least are clearly superior to existing products. The problem for dissemination is to get these products, which by definition are "different" from what people are used to, accepted. The extension model assumes that users are ignorant with respect to the product, and perhaps in a more general sense as well, and that they have an inherent bias against change. The solution is to establish direct personal contact with the user. Initially this contact should be with users who are most receptive to change. The purpose of this contact is to create acceptance by demonstrating to the individual that the product yields clear benefits for him or her. The focus of the extension model is thus on showing the individual that the tool works.

Once the tool has been accepted by some number of people, who are usually thought to be elite, it should, according to the extension model, diffuse through the social system to other people. The early adopters should be influential enough to create acceptance by other people in much the same way that their acceptance was created by the agent. The agent needs only to reinforce this process by making sure that the product and relevant information are available. The dominant force for change arises through the natural interaction of people.[11]

The authors argue that the change agent approach has not been effective because potential users are generally unable to identify the impact that educational R&D products might have, if, indeed, the products have any dramatic impact at all.

Attempting to put the responsibility for acceptance of products on the user system may help contain criticism of educational R&D. It is not likely to yield higher usage rates or, in itself, user satisfaction. This is

> because the change agent philosophy, as it has evolved in education, fails to consider the needs of product users as the impetus for R&D activity. Rather, it relies on the assumption that superior products will emerge spontaneously--an assumption that is yet to be borne out.[12]

Of particular interest to state education agency staff involved in building dissemination capacity is that Kotler and his colleagues do not suggest that we dispense with the change agent approach but, rather, that we go "a step beyond it" by adopting the marketing approach.

> The marketing concept is not so much incompatible with the change agent advocacy approach as it is a step beyond it. The marketing concept recognizes the importance of product features, of early users of a product, and of the growth curve, life cycle diffusion of a product. But such considerations are not the prime movers in designing a marketing system. The prime mover is the needs of the user. Once a systematic approach has been established to identify user needs and to translate these needs into educational products, it becomes appropriate to consider the efficacy of a change agent advocacy.
>
> Marketing takes the focus off the product and puts it on the user's needs. Products are developed from the user's point of view, not the producer's. There is certainly room for creative ideas and innovations in the marketing system. The user's need for a product may only be latent. The user may not be able to even conceive of the product much less express a desire for it. Even in the case of latent needs, however, beyond the initial stage of invention, the R&D process must be guided by user considerations. A product may originate in completely basic research, but from initial idea onward it is developed with the user in mind. Less original products are expected to develop directly from user needs. The guiding principle of marketing organization is that all activities flow from the consumer. The system is user driven.
>
> It might be argued that a change agent system is also user driven. This is true only in the sense that the user is making the final evaluation and decision. The product is still being directed <u>at</u> the user. Perhaps

> the product is being directed less forcefully than with other versions of the sales concept, but it is being directed nonetheless from the producer's point of view. The marketing system is user driven in the sense that it is the user's needs, latent or manifest, that provide the direction.[13]

The bulk of Kotler's paper is devoted to a definition of the marketing concept, the identification of activities that must be performed in order to operationalize marketing functions (more on these activities later), and a description of organizational structures that may be developed to facilitate the performance of marketing activities.

We can draw a great deal of information on the application of the marketing concept to the production and dissemination of educational R&D products from the papers that have been described in the past few pages--these, in fact, seem to be all of the papers on this subject that have been distributed widely. Several other papers may prove helpful and are described in the bibliography (see especially Zaltman and Sikorski, "Implications of Diffusion Research for RDx"; and Kuehl, "Marketing Perspectives for 'ERIC-Like' Information Systems").

Concerns for Statewide Capacity Building

It is important that we look at the literature from the proper perspective. It has much to say, but we need to go beyond it to some extent, for several reasons. First, in examining the literature, we can immediately see the necessity for determining client needs and for monitoring those needs continuously. (These are points that we will discuss in depth.) But, for the most part, the capacity-building projects are in the

business, not of developing products, but of finding products--whether R&D based, commercially published, or experience-based--and other resources and supporting linkages that will respond to the concerns and needs of their practitioner clients. They must, of course, monitor the needs of those clients, but, to a large extent, this is for the purpose of building an information system that is responsive to those needs. It is also for the purpose of relaying information about those needs to R&D agencies and NIE so that decisions can be made about further research and development efforts. The importance of needs assessment must be put in this context.

Second, two of the important responsibilities in capacity building are to initiate and maintain contacts with LEAs and to provide--and foster--leadership in the improvement of educational practice. Staff development and incentives are essential aspects of these activities. Although not reflected to any great extent in the four papers we have described, marketing experts have a great deal to share with the educational community in these areas.

Finally, the importance of promotion to the capacity-building effort must be discussed. This, of course, is a multiple process--the projects must effectively communicate with their funding agency, with the agencies and organizations which provide them with resources, with their client group, and with the general public. The projects must take all of their publics into consideration when they address questions concerning promotion: When

should planning begin? When should promotion begin? What are the important elements in promotion? How important is image and how can image be changed? How much money should be budgeted? What are the most cost-efficient promotional strategies? Again, marketing experts have a wealth of information to share with us on this topic.

Notes

1. For example, see Robert Bartels, "Can Marketing Be a Science?" Journal of Marketing, Vol. 15 (January 1951), pp. 319-328; Kenneth D. Hutchinson, "Marketing as a Science: An Appraisal," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 16 (January 1952), pp. 286-293; Robert D. Buzzell, "Is Marketing a Science?" Harvard Business Review, Vol. 41 (January-February 1963), pp. 32-48.

2. Committee on Terms, Marketing Definitions: A Glossary of Marketing Terms (Chicago: American Marketing Association, 1960).

3. "Statement of Marketing Philosophy," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 29 (January 1965), pp. 43-44.

4. Philip Kotler and Sidney J. Levy, "Broadening the Concept of Marketing," Journal of Marketing, Vol 33 (January 1969), p. 15. For a complete account of the controversy over the scope and definition of the term "marketing," see Shelby D. Hunt, "The Nature and Scope of Marketing," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 40 (July 1976), pp. 17-28. Other articles on this topic can be found in the first section of the bibliography, "Marketing--An Expanding Definition," under the subheading, "Defining Marketing Theory."

5. Philip Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), p. x.

6. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 19.

7. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 31.

8. Philip Kotler, et al., "The Role of Marketing in a National Institute of Education" (1972, ED 088 155), p. 2.

9. Richard Bateman, et al., "A Projected Role for Marketing in the Dissemination of Products Developed by R&D Agencies" (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 1973), p. 15.

10. Linda A. Sikorski and C. L. Hutchins, "A Study of the Feasibility of Marketing Programming for Educational R&D Products" (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational R&D, 1974), p. 3.

11. Philip Kotler, Bobby J. Calder, Brian Sternthal, and Alice M. Tybout, "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations, edited by Michael Radnor, Durward Hofler, and Robert Rich (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1977), pp. 3-4.

12. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," p. 6.

13. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 6-7.

Part II-Marketing Strategies and Educational Dissemination: Getting Down to Specifics

Orientation

In this section we will describe specific marketing strategies that can prove useful to educational disseminators. We will rely heavily on the work of Philip Kotler, as, indeed, have all the writers in this area, and we urge our readers to look more closely at Kotler's writings for further explanation and increased understanding of the principles described here.

The Marketing Concept

> The marketing concept is a consumers' needs orientation backed by integrated marketing aimed at generating consumer satisfaction as the key to satisfying organizational goals.[1]

Adopting the marketing concept calls for a reorientation on the part of the organization from looking inward to the organization's products and services to looking outward to the clients' needs. The clients' needs ultimately shape the products and services. In adopting the marketing concept, the organization redirects its resources to

1. defining user wants and needs;
2. determining how well these needs are being satisfied by existing information products and services; and
3. developing new products and services which more effectively fulfill user needs.

In discussing marketing perspectives for "ERIC-like" information systems, Philip Kuehl argues that there are four advantages to the marketing

concept orientation:

1. Recognizing that user needs are more basic and general than specific information products can assist in properly defining a product or information system in relation to competing products or systems. Being future-oriented--defining products in relation to user needs and societal change--creates a highly responsive information system.

2. Examination of user needs helps information system managers discover new product and service opportunities. If this is not part of the process, the organization will be neither adaptive (in step with dynamic changes in user needs) nor formative (capable of generating and leading needed change in the user segment).

3. A user-need focus results in more effective dissemination and distribution.

4. Societal interests and organizational interests are interrelated and harmonized.[2]

Clearly, there are implications for resource managers involved in educational dissemination from what Kuehl suggests: first, it must be recognized that the information services they provide fit within a complex environment of a variety of resources and services addressed to needs; second, diagnosis of client needs should drive service design--both in form and content.

Butler offers several very practical suggestions for nonprofit organizations which are interested in implementing a marketing orientation:

1. Management must thoroughly study and understand the marketing concept before making a commitment.
2. Management should try to visualize what systems would have to be changed, what groups would be affected, and what programs would help smooth the way to the desired change.
3. Management should avoid announcing prematurely a public commitment to a marketing orientation (or customer service orientation, if this term is more acceptable). Instead it should call in representatives of the various departments, outline the nature and need for the marketing concept, and solicit their views. It will be helpful to hear how the various departments state their interests and reservations and to know how much cooperation can be expected in advance.
4. When the problems have been thought through and the climate seems right, and some plans have been laid for the installation of the concept, the chief executive of the organization can announce and explain the new orientation, its benefits to the public and to the organization's own employees and management, and the implementation plan. The statement should be presented in a series of meetings and also should be in writing and broadly circulated throughout the organization.[3]

As can be seen from the above list, the first important aspect of implementing a marketing concept orientation is planning. Kotler's emphasis on inventorying (number 2) and on the participatory nature of

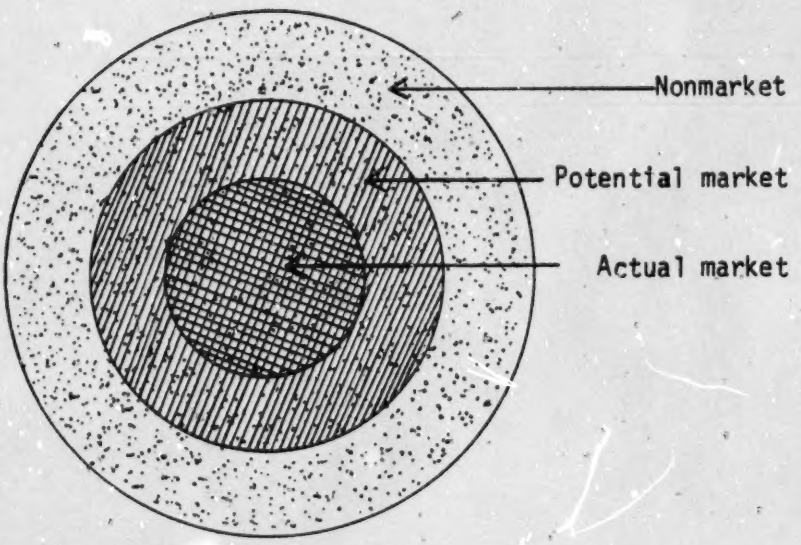
organizational decision making (essentially number 4) reinforces the need for dissemination staff to attend to planning as an integral part of the leadership function in capacity building. The second is periodic assessment to determine whether specified goals are being reached, to make adjustments where necessary, and to set new goals. This is an area that could impinge upon the issues of quality control with which disseminators are dealing, because of its suggestion that an intelligence-gathering system needs to be developed early on (which may in part contradict educators' traditional view of evaluation) and because evaluation is considered not as an "add-on" but as an integral component of a marketing orientation. Periodic intellgience gathering can also be designed to determine the contribution and effectiveness of specific marketing activities. Kotler has compiled a list of questions which can be used by organizations to assess their marketing activities. His "Systematic Marketing Audit" (see Appendix A) is divided into three parts, which are designed to assist in assessment of the organization's marketing environment, marketing system, and detailed marketing activities.

Market Structure Analysis

> Market structure analysis consists of four steps. The first step is market definition, the determination of all the actual and potential members of the market. The second step is market segmentation, the identification of meaningfully different parts of the market. The third step is market positioning, the choice of the parts of the market to which the organization will relate. The fourth step is called market orchestration, the work of harmonizing the marketing program to the different market segments served by the organization.[4]

Not all people are interested in the kinds of products and services that state dissemination programs might offer, nor are these programs interested in offering their products and services to everyone (they may not be able to, either). The actual market consists of those people whose wants and needs mesh most closely with the product and service attributes offered. When approaching market structure analysis from a capacity-building point of view, it should be remembered that state dissemination programs most likely will have several different markets operating simultaneously. Kotler diagrams the basic relationship in the following way:

Figure II-1. Market Definition[5]



It is often not easy to distinguish between the potential and actual markets. Generally the distinction is that the actual market consists of people who are willing or ready to acquire and consume the products or services or who are already using them. Of course, most organizations would be interested in the movement of people in the potential market into the actual market.

This has also been called the "marketing understanding phase."

> The process begins with the identification of target users. Any number of considerations may come into play here, such as long run objectives, current crises which may be affecting the educational system, the desire to help previously disadvantaged users, and breakthrough product ideas. The task is to draw together these considerations, whatever they are and wherever they come from, and to specify their implications, not for a product, but for the group of users to which the organization wishes to be responsive. The more limiting the relevant considerations are, the more narrowly defined will be the target group. . . .
>
> Once a target group has been identified, an attempt is made, usually entailing research, to determine the unmet needs of this group. Since the expression of these needs will be channeled through the decision-making structure of the user organization, this structure must be analyzed simultaneously with the needs analysis. It is necessary to understand how the individual user's needs interact with those of other people in the user system. . . [6]

Market Segmentation

Even within the actual market there are degrees of interest--it is extremely important that the organization recognize that some parts of the actual market will have more interest and more resources and will be more responsive to the product or service than others. This fact is compatible with the notion of user capacity being explored through the

evaluation of the State Dissemination Grants Program. Market segmentation consists of "dividing the market into fairly homogeneous parts where any part may conceivably be selected as a target market to be reached with a distinct marketing mix [product, price, distribution pattern, and promotional program]."[7]

> The segmentation phase addresses the key question of whether the target group can be satisfied most effectively as a group or as subgroups. From the understanding achieved of the target group, segmentation variables are selected which represent the major differences within the target group. At this point the market analysis process must begin to focus on the set of needs which may be satisfiable. Segmentation variables are selected for each need. Research is then necessary to confirm that users do in fact differ in terms of the variables selected. Finally, the segments derived for each need must be examined in terms of the organization's resources and objectives in order to determine if it is <u>worth</u> treating each as a separate target group.[8]

The simplified segmentation of the educational community in Figure II-2 illustrates the concept in gross terms.

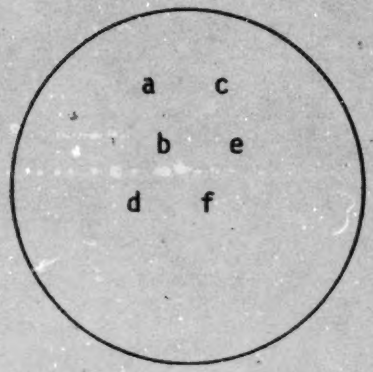
The segmentation has implications for packaging design, as well. For instance, dissemination staff may package one product in several different ways, tailored for consumption by different audiences. Also, marketing's segmentation emphasis could have implications for the different kinds of linkage mechanisms employed in educational dissemination.

Market segmentation also permits more informed decision making regarding the allocation of marketing resources over the entire target population,

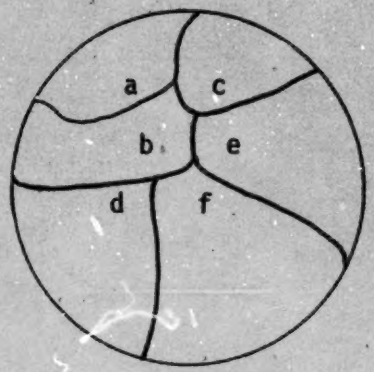
Figure II-2

Market Segmentation of the Educational Community

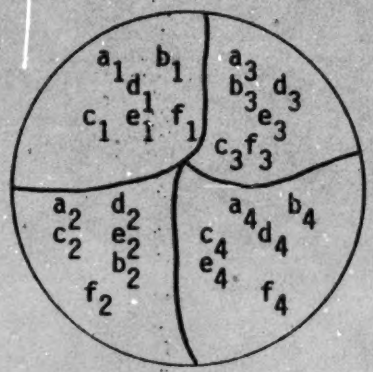
a = administrators (district-level)
b = school board members
c = principals
d = department heads
e = teachers
f = specialists



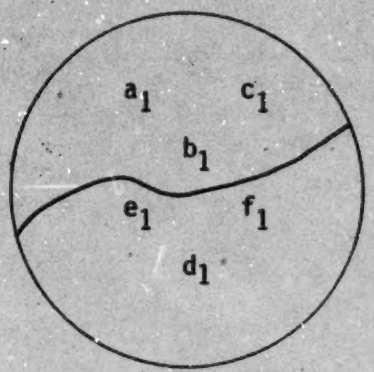
No Market Segmentation



Complete
Market Segmentation



Market Segmentation
by Level
1 = Preschool
2 = Elementary
3 = Secondary
4 = Post-Secondary



Market Segmentation
by Policy Makers and
Classroom Practitioners
at the Elementary Level

a point stressed by Sikorski and Hutchins.[9] (See Appendix B for a list of major segmentation variables and their typical breakdown.)

Kotler and his colleagues illustrate the market analysis process, including the marketing understanding (definition) phase and the segmentation phase, through the use of a flow diagram. (See Figure II-3.)

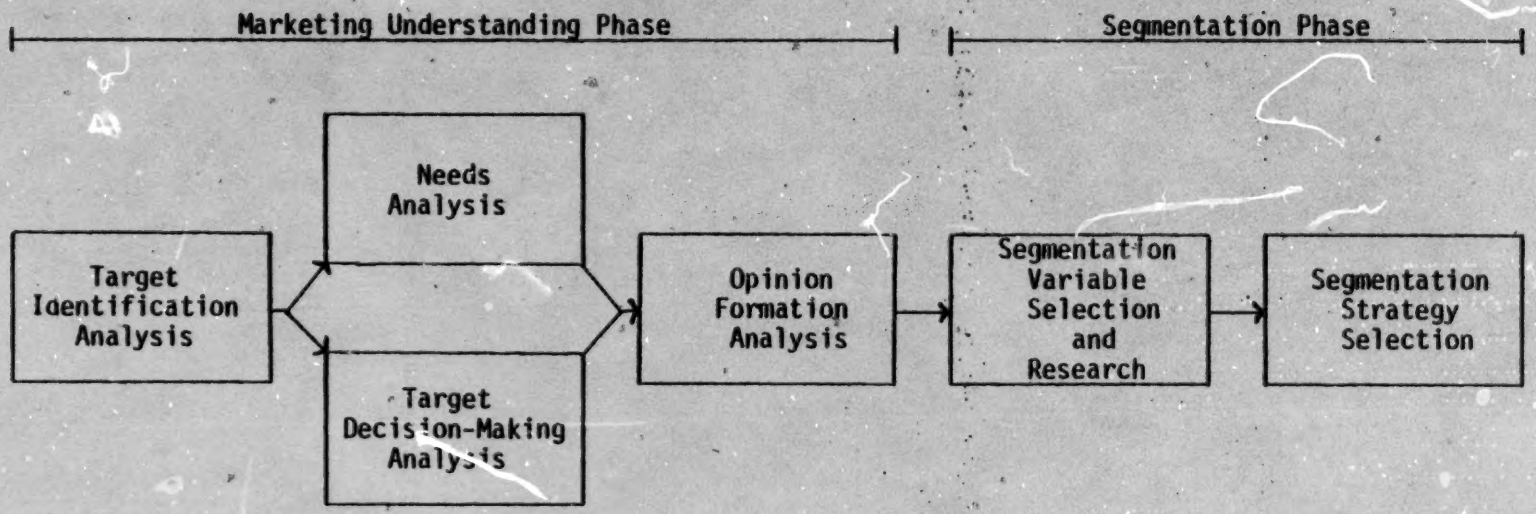
The Discrepancy Model. In their work at the Far West Lab, Sikorski and Hutchins developed a "discrepancy model" to use as a basis for market segmentation and as a guide for market selection and marketing strategy development.[11] The model developed from two premises: first, change will not occur if there are discrepancies between the potential user and the requirements of a product; second, the educational market can be segmented on the basis of these discrepancies. Sikorski and Hutchins define 34 potential discrepancies and describe how their model can be applied. Because of the potential usefulness of the discrepancy model, Sikorski and Hutchins' description of it is included as Appendix C.

Client System Analysis

Perhaps you will remember that the first marketing emphasis that Kotler suggested for NIE's consideration involved client system analysis--"marketing emphasizes understanding the behavioral system of the client and contains sophisticated methods for client system analysis."[12]

Figure II-3

The Market Analysis Process[10]



II-10

Client system analysis goes beyond needs assessment. In order to remain both adaptive and formative in their approach to their clients, organizations must also study the process by which decisions are made by groups within their target markets, particularly the ways in which information is sought and used, and they must also continually monitor the environment within which those groups function. In this respect, the role of linkers as observers should be explored.

Needs Analysis

Actually, educational disseminators have made a fair amount of progress in the area of needs assessment. Systematic needs assessments have been conducted by many state education agencies and by some of the capacity-building projects that have been in operation for any length of time. Educational disseminators also have developed extensive indirect systems over the years for learning about the needs of their clients. Richard Bateman and his colleagues describe these indirect systems:

> Available studies which focus on the behavioral characteristics of educational practitioners have been reviewed and synthesized. Direct involvement with potential clients as a result of the field testing process has provided the opportunity of becoming better acquainted with these clients and of gathering some data as to their behavioral systems. A certain amount of residual information has been available from the experiential base of . . . staff members who have been recruited from the client system. The knowledge gained from these sources has been sifted and tempered through exposure to selected friends who still operate as educational practitioners (consultants, panels, advisory committeees, etc.) so that some practical information about the client behavioral system has emerged.[13]

Marketing experts argue that needs analysis must be done using an effective method and that it must be a continuing process--performed at specific stages in product development or at periodic intervals to assess the quality of services. Most important, they stress that a careful needs analysis must precede development of a product or institution of a service.

Kotler mentions three conceptual problems that face any organization which sets out to determine the needs of its target market or segments of that market:

1. The concept of need is not well-defined. In popular parlance, it is used interchangeably with such terms as "want," "desire," and "demand."
2. People are not always able to expresss clearly their needs or wants. They may have given them little thought; or they may find them hard to describe; or they may be reticent to mention them.
3. It is difficult to assess the intensity of different needs that people mention having.[14]

Kotler describes four methods for conducting a needs analysis. The first method, an examination of archival data, is often a preliminary step to one or more of the other three methods. An examination of archival data might include

> student performance on tests measuring specific skills, records of successful and unsuccessful attempts to diffuse previous educational innovations, teachers' budgetary allocations designated for particular

purposes, data collected as part of previous research, and records of requests for various educational materials.

There are specific reasons for collecting each of these types of data. Student performance on tests measuring reading, math and verbal skills could be examined to identify areas where performance is poor. This might indicate a need for more effective teaching methods and tools in these areas. Records of previous attempts to diffuse educational innovations could also be examined to generate insight regarding target needs. The needs fulfilled by innovations which were successful might be contrasted with the needs served by ones which failed to obtain some notion about the importance of these various needs. In addition, any systematic efforts to determine the reasons why a particular innovation failed to gain acceptance may also provide insight into needs. Teachers' budgetary allocations to particular areas may provide an indication of their needs for supplementary teaching materials. Existing literature and data collected as part of previous research projects might also be examined for clues regarding the needs of the target. This might include the focal organization's own research as well as research conducted by other organizations such as universities, regional centers and labs, SEAs and LEAs. Finally, valuable information regarding target needs may be obtained by simply examining the requests for materials and information which are made at all levels in the educational system. For example, requests which teachers make to their school administrators, LEAs and SEAs regarding desired information and materials provide an indication of their needs.

After archival data has been examined, the organization may have some general notion of targets' needs. However, since this information is derived from data collected for some purpose other than need identification, it is likely to be incomplete. As a result, it may be necessary to collect additional data to help define target needs.[15]

Three methods exist which could be employed to collect additional data:

The Direct Method. Most marketing researchers use direct questioning to assess consumer needs. They may conduct an interview with a single individual or lead a focused group discussion. They may use open-end questions, such as "What courses would you like to see

added to the present high school curriculum?" or "What recreational facilities would you like to see added in the park?" These questions will elicit opinions and clues as to the individual's needs and desires. Closed-end questions may also be included, such as "Rank the following activities of our church in order of interest," or "Rate each of the following city services on a scale of how much improvement is needed." Open-end questions have the advantage of providing more insight and surprises than closed-end questions; on the other hand, they are more difficult to code and summarize into representative findings.

The value of the "needs" information depends a great deal on the specific wording of the questions; whether they are asked over a telephone, on the street, in the home, or through the mails; the motivation of the respondent; his articulateness; the effect of the interviewer; the way the sample is drawn; and many other factors.

The Projective Method. The direct questioning method assumes that clients are aware of their own needs and motivations and willing to share the information with interviewers. But there are many issues on which they may not know or want to share their true feelings. . .

Thus the needs that are verbalized may mask the real needs operating in the individual. If the organization responds to the verbalized needs, it might find that this still does not satisfy the clients. Obviously it must probe into the underlying motivational dynamics so that it can offer products and services that will meet the real needs of the clients. [The four main projective techniques are word association, sentence completion, picture completion, and role playing.]

The Simulation Method. A third method of probing consumer needs is to present a prototype of a possible product or solution to a need and let the subject experience and respond to it.[16] [Scenario building and futuring would also be included in simulation methods.]

Not mentioned in this specific reference from Kotler, but certainly worth mentioning, is the importance of anticipating needs in the educational community. For instance, state education agencies are in a prime

leadership position to develop dissemination materials and strategies in areas where legislation will eventually impact even before it becomes law.

Although Kotler mentions the focus group interview, he does not elaborate on it. It is an interesting technique which has several advantages over the simple question/answer interview. Keith Cox and his colleagues describe this kind of interview in an article which discusses several applications of the technique:

> Basically, there are 2 types of group interview studies. One is nothing more than a question and answer session: the group moderator asks questions and the respondents give verbal or written answers. A second type is the focus group interview, where a group of people (generally eight to twelve) are led through an open, in-depth discussion by a group moderator. The moderator's objective is to focus the discussion on the relevant subject areas in a nondirective manner. Such interviews can be used to develop hypotheses in the planning or qualitative stage of the marketing research process. The interviews provide a basis in depth for the development of additional research, and they may be useful as a source of new and fresh ideas for new products and services, advertising themes, packaging evaluations, and the like.[17]

Another interesting technique for learning about client wants and needs--and especially client expectations--is suggested by John E. Swan and Linda Jones Combs:

> In a survey designed to determine what consumers like/-dislike about a product, a useful research step may be to follow the procedure used here and ask consumers to talk about an especially satisfactory and dissatisfactory item, since salient outcomes have been shown to vary along such lines. Measurement of consumer expectations and determination of how well the firm's product may meet such expectations could be a useful step in helping to insure consumer satisfaction.[18]

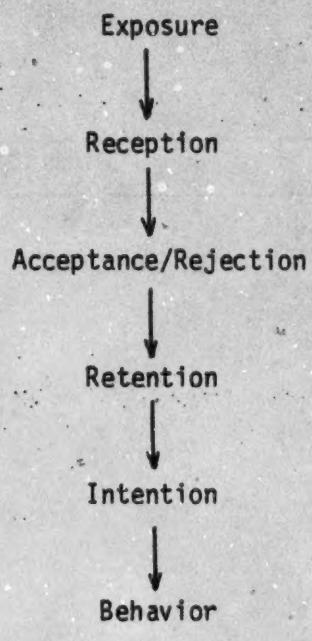
Decision-Making Processes. In addition to identifying the needs of the target market and determining which of those needs can be satisfied, the

organization must become familiar with the process which the target market uses in making decisions. This involves both the interactions among individuals or subgroups within the target and the way in which those individuals or subgroups form points of view. Kotler suggests a hierarchy in the decision-making process--an individual can play one or more of these roles:

1. Initiator--The initiator is the person who first suggests the idea to purchase a particular educational innovation.
2. Influencer--An influencer is a person who explicitly or implicitly carries some influence on the final decision.
3. Decider--The decider is a person (or persons) who ultimately determines what action should be taken: whether to buy, what to buy, how to buy, when to buy and where to buy.
4. Purchaser--The purchaser is the person who makes the actual purchase.
5. User--The user is the person who operates the product or service.[19]

Regardless of the roles that members of the target market play in this hierarchy, they all must have information in order to play their role. Kotler describes in detail the process through which all people go when confronted with information, a process which is essential if they are to form an opinion. He uses the following model:

Figure II-4. Information Processing Model



The model interprets behavior as a function of information transmission through several necessary, but not sufficient, stages. Thus, one must be exposed to information before it can be received. Yet, exposure is not sufficient for reception. In turn, given that an individual receives the information, there is some probability that he/she will choose to accept or reject it. Further, acceptance or rejection of the information is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for retention. Finally, information which is retained may influence intention and, ultimately, actual behavior. Let us now examine the model components in more detail.

Exposure to information entails the physical presence of an individual at the time the information is being given. Exposure is a function of two factors: the environment and the utility of the information. An individual's environment controls the information that

he/she is aware of and, therefore, exposed to. For example, teachers are likely to read education journals, attend teaching seminars, and associate with other teachers. Thus, if an organization wants to insure that teachers are exposed to information about an educational innovation it must first make them aware of the information by placing it in their environment (i.e., in educational journals, at teaching seminars and conferences, etc.). However, careful placement of the information in the target market's environment will not be sufficient to guarantee exposure. Given awareness of information, an individual may decide to expose himself/herself on the basis of the perceived utility of the information.

The utility of information is a function of two factors: (1) certainty about one's position and (2) decisional importance. Certainty about one's position depends upon the quantity of information (e.g., amount of past information and experience the individual has with respect to the issue), quality of information (e.g., is the information current or out-of-date?), and the consistency of the information (e.g., does all the information support a particular approach, etc.?). When an individual is highly certain about his/her position with respect to a particular issue, he/she may see little utility in additional information and therefore choose not to expose himself/herself to it. The other factor which influences an individual's evaluation of the utility of additional information is the importance of a decision. The factor is related to the economic, social, and physical costs associated with the decision. As these costs increase, the utility of additional information and consequently the probability of exposure to such information increases.

Given that an individual is exposed to information, there is some probability that he will receive the information conveyed. Reception involves the processing and comprehension of information. Individuals are most likely to process information which is salient to them. For example, a teacher who is very concerned about how to teach reading effectively is likely to process information on this topic. If the salience of a topic is low for a particular target it may be increased by linking it to something which has high salience.

Reception is also related to comprehension. An individual's comprehension of information may be enhanced by insuring that the information is communicated simply and clearly. In addition,

repetition of information will help insure reception by increasing the probability that the information will be processed and understood.

Once information is received it may undergo further processing by the individual and be either accepted or rejected. The acceptance or rejection of the information is a function of the individual's initial opinion and the effectiveness of the arguments advanced in the communication. If people have a strongly negative predisposition to an innovation, it is unlikely that information will cause a dramatic change in their opinion. . .In addition, the arguments presented in the communication will influence the acceptance/rejection of the information. The communication will gain greater acceptance if the arguments advanced relate to factors that the target considers important, and if they are substantiated by evidence unfamiliar to message recipients. If information is accepted or rejected there is some probability that it will be retained or stored for further use in forming intentions and behavior. The probability that information will be retained can be enhanced by the use of repetition.[20]

Monitoring the Educational Environment. Organizations must also include in their marketing procedures a mechanism for monitoring changes in the educational environment as it affects their target markets. Kotler amplifies this concept:

> Educational assessment and educational indicators should be specifically designed to examine attitudes and performance through time and across the wide range of constituencies education serves or relies on for cooperation and support. At the broad problem level, this will provide a picture of emerging and receding problem areas as viewed by education's various constituencies. At the "methods" and programs level the activity more clearly concerns identifying change opportunities and following the success or failure of extant programs and methods.[21]

Kotler's discussion of operational procedures for conducting this activity can be found in Appendix D.

It is clear that the input publics of the organization would play a major role in this activity. The channels of communication with these publics must be carefully nurtured. The variety of linkages used by state education agency dissemination program managers is a major source of such monitoring and nurturing. In many cases, in fact, linkers have become vital eyes and ears for the entire agency.

The Marketing Mix

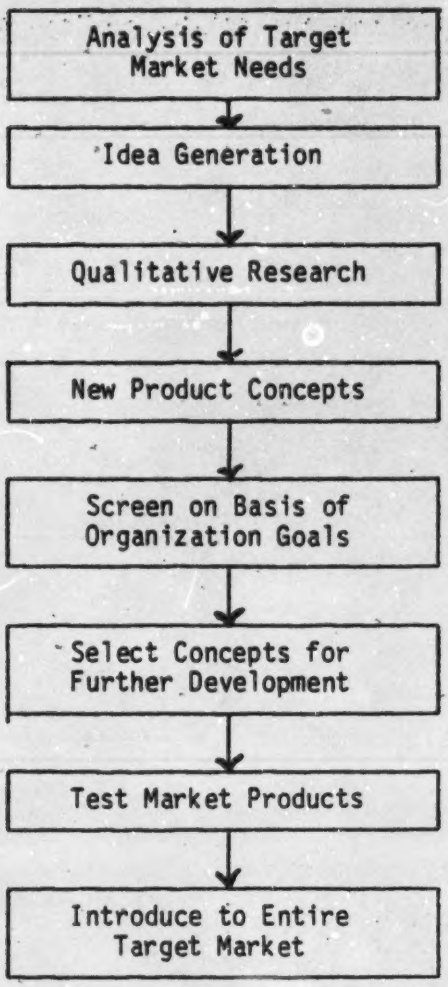
After an organization has identified a target market, it must then develop a marketing program that meets the needs of the target and is in keeping with the objectives of the organization. In most cases, the marketing mix has four components: product, price, place or distribution, and promotion. For our purposes it would seem that the first component should be "product or service." We will discuss each of the four components separately.

Product or Service. The first step that an organization should take after conducting a client system analysis involves determining what products or services will best meet the identified client needs which the organization feels can be satisfied within the limits of the resources it has available. Often this means the development of entirely new products because existing products do not satisfy the needs. For state dissemination staffs, this might often take the form of putting together a package which includes products that already exist, bibliographies, lists of human and other resources, and, perhaps, new material developed internally. In some cases, it may be determined that a package will not be

sufficient and that a new service seems to be called for. Oftentimes, workshops, conferences, and consultations may be seen as better ways to "package" the information needed. A great deal of planning and testing must go into these activities.

Kotler lists eight steps in the development of a new product. These steps can also be applied to the development of a new service.

Figure II-5. New Product Development[22]



Idea generation can be done on a regular basis in the organization and, in fact, should be one of the leadership functions regularly engaged in as part of dissemination capacity building.

Qualitative research, involving focus-group interviews, in-depth interviews, and so on, could be conducted to get reactions of the target group to the ideas identified as having potential. Kotler suggests that questions designed to probe clients' perceptions of a possible product should include the following six elements:

1. Is the concept clear and easy to understand?
2. Do the respondents grasp how the concept is positioned in relation to competing offerings and what its distinct benefits are?
3. Do the respondents show a preference for this concept over competing offerings?
4. Do enough respondents indicate an intention to buy the concept?
5. Do enough respondents say the concept meets a real need of theirs?
6. How do respondents feel about each of the key attributes of the concept: its form, price, quality, accessibility, and so on?[23]

Concepts which are compatible with the goals and capabilities of the organization can be further developed. Prototypes of the products or

services that emerge should be tested to ensure that they will meet the target's needs.

This brings us to a very important point about the marketing process--management should be willing to abandon an idea or product at any stage of development--even in the final stages. Joan Herman makes this point in a paper in which she compares development of toys by the toy industry to development of educational products:

> At times, in education, we seem unable to give up development of an idea, even though it has been shown to be unworkable. Although the decision should not be taken lightly, we should be willing to say "no" regardless of the stage of development, rather than waste additional energy with an untenable project.[24]

Even if the product or service reaches the final stage--introduction to the entire target market--there is no guarantee that it will be adopted. Kotler describes five attributes that influence the rate at which a new product becomes adopted (to a large extent, these might also apply to a new service):

1. The relative advantage of the new product over existing products. The greater the relative advantage, the more rapid the adoption.
2. The compatibility of the new product with the lifestyle of members of the target. The more compatible with the target's lifestyle that the new product is, the more rapidly it will be adopted. However, compatibility should not entail developing a product that is highly similar to those in existence.

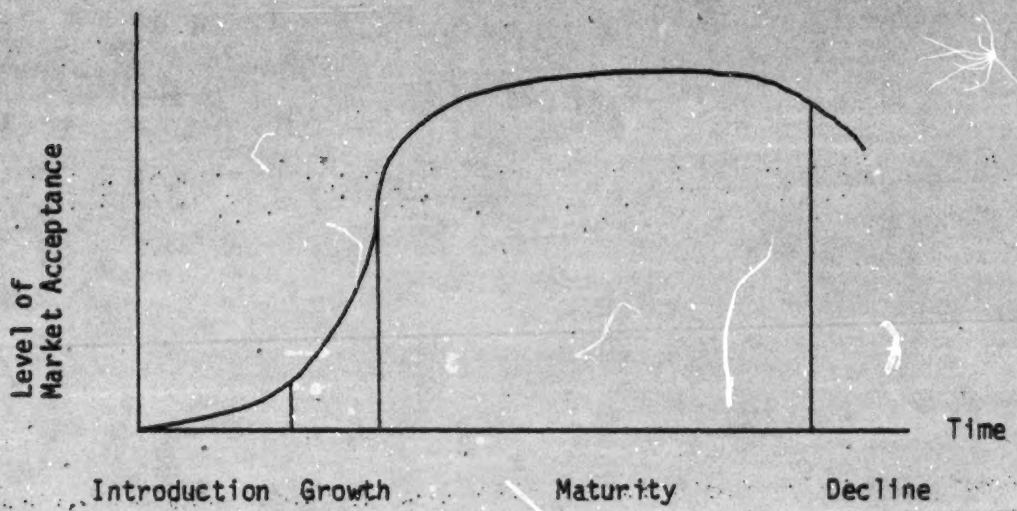
3. The complexity of the new product. The more complex the new product, the slower the adoption.
4. The communicability or extent to which the new product's function and features can be described to someone who has not seen or used the new product.
5. The divisibility of the product, or the degree to which the product can be tried in small quantities on a limited basis. If a product is divisible this will enhance the probability of adoption.[25]

Organizations must also be aware of the product life cycle (which can also characterize the history of services, persons, places, organizations, and ideas). The concept of a product life cycle holds that there are four distinct stages in the history of a product's acceptance:

> During introduction, the market is largely unaware of the product. This is followed by a period of rapid growth when the product "catches on." Growth is followed in turn by a longer stage of maturity in which the market is very familiar with the product and transacts with it on a fairly constant basis. Finally, there is a stage of prolonged or rapid decline of market interest in the product.
>
> The main interest of decision makers in the product life-cycle concept is whether it is predictable and whether it can be altered by management action. As for predictability, the answer is generally no. The probable length of time each stage will last is not knowable in advance for most products.
>
> As for modifiability, the main point of product life--cycle theory is to try to identify the stage the product is currently in in order to determine the most effective steps to take. Different marketing tactics are effective in prolonging the growth period, or reversing the product's decline. Price, new product features, advertising, and distribution play different roles at each stage.[26]

Figure II-6

Stages in the Product Life Cycle[27]



We must not leave this subject without mentioning the importance of packaging. Cosette Kies stressed its importance in a recent article directed at social agencies:

> The way a product is wrapped or packaged has long been recognized as a means of visual persuasion as an attention-getting device, a motivational factor and a subconscious appeal to the potential customer or client. It is estimated that 80 per cent of all impressions are received through the eyes. Color and graphic design influence choice, and sexual connotations have been influential in attracting, holding and committing buyers to a product. Size and shape of packages tend to be designed to appeal to the eye rather than convenience in holding or storing. Competition to gain attention comes primarily through visual approaches and is the chief reason for the stress on packaging itself as a promotional feature.[28]

Several resources concerning packaging are included in the annotated bibliography, and are, of course, readily available from the advertising and graphic arts professional press.

Price. Although many of the state dissemination programs are not charging for their services and products now, the phasing out of Federal funds for capacity-building projects may eventually force them to consider this as one possible alternative for long-term support. If this happens, the state education agencies will more than likely adopt a pricing policy which simply covers all fixed and variable costs (profit making organizations also include a profit margin when determining price). The important thing for the organization to do is to determine a realistic price, one that covers all costs and that takes into account the effect of the price upon demand (which in turn influences costs). Kotler discusses two pricing strategies which organizations can use:

> In developing a pricing strategy for a new product, two strategies are available: skimming and penetration. A skimming pricing strategy entails initially pricing a new product at a relatively high level to take advantage of the fact that some buyers are willing to pay a higher price than others, and then over time reducing the price to attract additional customers. This strategy is most appropriate when:
>
> 1. there are a significant number of people who are willing to pay the initially high price;
> 2. there are barriers to competitive entry, such as patents (otherwise the high price would make competitive entry likely);
> 3. there is a desire to recoup the investment made in the product quickly;
> 4. price is used as an index of quality, and high quality is desirable.

An alternative to skimming pricing is a penetration pricing strategy. It entails setting the price of a new prduct at a relatively low level in order to capture a substantial proportion of the market quickly (i.e., penetrate the market). This strategy is best used when:

1. purchasers are price sensitive;

2. unit costs of production and distribution decline as output increases; and

3. a low price is likely to discourage actual or potential competition.

Although either a skimming or a penetration strategy could be employed by an organization introducing an educational innovation, a penetration strategy appears to be more consistent with the goal of rapid diffusion of educational innovations. Furthermore, since adopters of educational innovations are likely to be highly price sensitive in light of the fact many schools are experiencing severe budgetary problems, a penetration strategy is appropriate.[29]

Relationships between the pricing concept in the marketing field and the incentives concept in the dissemination field also should be explored.

Distribution and Diffusion. The third major component in the organization's marketing mix is place or distribution, and it involves how the organization plans to make its products and services available and accessible to its target market. This marketing component bears natural kinship with the dissemination component of linkage. A channel of distribution may be direct (from producer directly to the user) or it may involve one or more intermediaries.

Kotler and his colleagues describe the functions of various members of the channel of distribution and factors involved in the management of the

channel in their paper, "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products." That description can be found in Appendix E.

In many ways, of course, state education agencies in general and the state capacity-building projects specifically are concerned with the flow of information rather than the flow of products. The goal is to create linkages that will ensure the flow. In "Implications of Diffusion Research for RDx," Gerald Zaltman and Linda Sikorski discuss the importance of taking the multiplier effect into consideration when developing diffusion strategies.

> An important concern in developing strategies for diffusing educational innovations is the identification of potential adopters who themselves may act as agents of change. This creates a multiplier effect, whereby one teacher or school adopting an innovation becomes responsible for its adoption by several other teachers or schools. The task . . . is how to identify the best potential adopters of an innovation. Some prescriptive guidelines for addressing--but not solving--this task are presented here.
>
> The best potential adopter is one which has a (1) high early adoption propensity; (2) high volume propensity; (3) high influence propensity; and (4) low cost of effective exposure. In the following section, we shall clarify each of these concepts with reference to the teacher as the basic unit of adoption (see Kotler and Zaltman, 1976).
>
> Early adoption propensity is defined as the probability that, say, a teacher would be an early user of the innovation upon an effective communication exposure. Early adoption propensity is a function of the following subfactors:
>
> 1. The extent to which the innovation has strong need fulfillment potential for the teacher.

2. The extent to which the teacher has an innovation orientation. This is determined in part by cultural values and in part by individual personality.

3. The extent to which the innovation is highly accessible to the teacher.

4. The extent to which the teacher has the resources to acquire the innovation.

Each of these factors is important in whether or not a teacher will have a high propensity to adopt a particular innovation. Let us assume that each factor can be scaled from zero to one. It is suggested that these factors would combine in a multiplicative way. For example, the highest early adoption propensity would be found in a teacher who has a strong need for the innovation, tends to search out innovations, can easily acquire it without much effort, and has the requisite resources. The formula is multiplicative because if any factor is weak, the early adoption propensity drops considerably. It is not the case that the propensity would be high simply because two or three factors are very high.

Heavy volume propensity is the amount of the innovation that the teacher is likely to use when it is used. This propensity depends upon the following factors:

1. The probability that this type of teacher will be sufficiently satisfied with the innovation upon trial to use it again.

2. The average amount used by this teacher per use occasion.

These factors probably combine in a multiplicative way to determine the person's heavy volume propensity.

The proportion of persons that the prospect influences depends upon three factors:

1. The teacher's innovation conversational propensity.

2. The percentage of his or her acquaintances who are potential users of this product.

3. The degree to which other persons look upon this person as a legitimator of innovations.

> This says that the prospect will show a higher influence propensity the more he or she tends to talk about innovations they have tried, the more he or she talks to others who are interested in the area of the innovation, and the more he or she is seen as a legitimator of new ideas.[30]

In their paper Zaltman and Sikorski discuss 24 principles which can be drawn from the research on diffusion to guide educational disseminators (see Appendix F). Most of the principles are closely related to marketing principles and deserve close examination.

Promotion. The major function of promotional activities is to provide potential users of an organization's products and services with enough information that they will be able to make informed choices. For disseminators, what marketing has to say about promotion might prove useful in relation to the levels of spread, exchange, and choice discussed in the Dissemination Analysis Group report. Other purposes for which promotion can be, and frequently is, used are to create demand for products or services, to develop "repeat" users, to stabilize sales (create an even flow of goods), to shift inventories, and to meet competition. Promotional activities can be conducted through personal selling, advertising, and publicity. Many resources have been included in the annotated bibliography which should prove useful to organizations desiring to begin or revise their promotional program.

Kotler and his colleagues suggest that the first step in developing a promotional program is to articulate a precise set of objectives. These usually consist of four components:

1. Market Target. The various publics and their relative importance must be specified.

2. Communication Task. A statement of the product attributes you wish to convey to each target is specified.

3. Desired Change. What effect or result is desired in response to the promotional activity should be stated. The desired change may be stated in terms of communication indices, such as awareness of the product, attitude toward the product, and intention to adopt it, or in terms of actual adoption and implementation.

   The selection of the appropriate change index depends on two factors. One is the product's stage in its life cycle. More specifically, when the product is initially disseminated focus may center on achieving product awareness and a favorable disposition toward the product. In later stages of the product's life cycle, the rate of adoption is likely to be the main criterion in developing the desired change objective.

   The other factor to consider in establishing the desired change objective is the promotional vehicle used. For most educational products, the role of advertising (whether it entails placing space in trade journals or direct mailings) and publicity is to make people aware of the product and provide information which enables a judgment of its appropriateness for them. In contrast, personal selling is usually intended to stimulate trial.

   It should be noted that none of the promotional vehicles are conceived as being sufficient to induce adoption. Indeed, this is the task of the product. Rather, promotion is seen as a stimulus which facilitates the adoption and implementation of those products which match educators' needs. By the same token, promotion may serve to speed the demise of unneeded products.

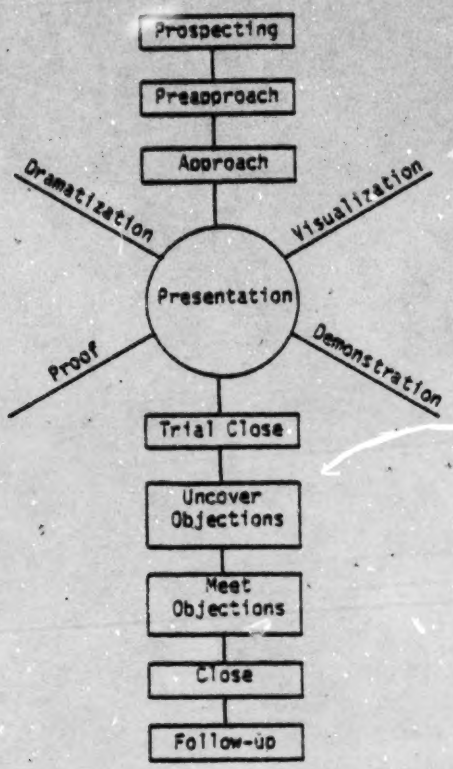
4. Time Period. The final component of a comprehensive promotional objective is a statement of the planning horizon. By specifying the length of time it will take to achieve the desired change among the various targets, the educational planner indicates when the promotional program should be evaluated.[31]

The linking agent (salesman) is a vital part of the dissemination capacity-building efforts and must be selected and trained very carefully. Marketers have long recognized this need:

> Companies have recognized that customers create a business, but only by keeping them satisfied can a company prosper. If they don't others will. This means that every sales force must be recruited and selected, trained, motivated, and developed to perform as skillfully as it can its prime and vital task--the reason for its existence--to identify the needs of customers and satisfy them.[32]

The selling process itself is a fairly complicated one. Figure II-7 illustrates the process:

Figure II-7. The Selling Process[33]



Kotler has identified five skills and understandings that sales people need in order to effectively put the selling process into action. These skills can also be applied to educational linking agents:

1. The salesman should know his or her company and identify with it.
2. The salesman should know his or her products.
3. The salesman should know customers' and competitors' characteristics.
4. The salesman should learn how to make effective sales presentations.
5. The salesman should be introduced to field procedures and responsibilities (how to divide his or her time, how to use an expense account, how to prepare reports, route himself or herself effectively, etc.)[34]

The personal contacts that linking agents make with members of the target market serve four purposes. First, they provide services to the target group, discovering the needs of the client and using the organization's resources to satisfy those needs. Second, linking agents are able to monitor changing needs and new developments among their clients in a way that statistical data cannot. Third, the agents serve a "selling" function in the sense that they try to reach new clients as well as maintain contacts that are already established. Finally, the agents provide visibility for the program--the personal relationships they develop with their clients are far more valuable than less personalized promotional methods.

Organizations should assess their staffing procedures at regular intervals. There are a number of questions they might ask--perhaps the most important question should be, Is your staffing pattern compatible with your market? Other important and fairly traditional personnel questions are

1. Is there a systematic staffing procedure?
2. Have job descriptions been developed for all positions within the organization?
3. Has an employee profile been developed? Such a profile outlines the characteristics that an employee must possess if he or she is to function well in a particular job.
4. How does the current staff measure up against the job descriptions and employee profiles?
5. What gaps exist between desired and actual performance?
6. Are all functions necessary to achieve the objectives of the organization covered by the current range of jobs?
7. Are all jobs covered by existing staff?[35]

If an organization decides to use advertising, it must develop its advertising objectives, budget, and message, determine which media it will use, and develop a plan for evaluating its advertising program.

Kotler describes three decisions that must be made in clarifying advertising objectives. The first decision is to determine the right target clients for the communications--who will the message reach? The second decision involves specifying the effect that the organization wants to

create. The range moves from unawareness through awareness, comprehension, interest, and desire, to action (a notion which is certainly in line with the DAG levels). Finally, the organization must determine the optimal target reach and frequency of the advertising (what percentage of the audience will be reached with what exposure frequency per period).

One rough way for estimating the advertising budget is offered by Kotler:

> multiply the desired reach by the desired frequency to determine the total number of exposures that will be needed; and then multiply the total number of exposures by the average cost of an advertising exposure in the type of media contemplated. For example, suppose the marketer is constructing a campaign to reach 30 million people approximately 4 times during the campaign period. This is a total exposure level of 120 million. Suppose the average mass media cost is approximately $4 per thousand people. Then the rough advertising expenditure level will be $480,000.[36]

Kotler also suggests very specific ways for evaluating an advertising program. These include pretesting methods--direct ratings, portfolio tests, and laboratory tests--and post-testing methods, including recall tests and recognition tests. He also suggests the format for a rating sheet for ads. See Appendix G for his description of these procedures.

Direct mail is now the third largest medium of advertising after newspapers and television and is often the only feasible method for educational organizations to use in advertising their products and services. Fulmer lists ten advantages of direct mail promotion:

1. It can be aimed at specific individuals or markets with greater control than any other medium.
2. It can be made personal to the point of being confidential.

3. It is a single advertiser's individual message and is not in competition with other advertising or editorials.
4. Direct advertising does not have the limitation on space and format that other media have.
5. It permits greater flexibility in material and processes of production than virtually any other medium.
6. It provides a means for introducing novelty and realism into the interpretation of the advertiser's story, for example, cutouts, popups, and odd shapes and patterns.
7. It can be produced according to the needs of the advertiser's own immediate schedule of timing.
8. Direct advertising can be controlled for specific jobs of research, reaching small groups, testing ideas, appeals, and reactions.
9. It can be dispatched for accurate and in some cases exact timing, both as to the departure of the pieces as well as to their receipt.
10. It provides more thorough means for the reader to act or buy through action devices that are not possible for other media to use; for example, business reply cards and order blanks.[37]

Of particular interest to disseminators should be the various techniques employed by direct mail professionals. Principles of enticement and good business communications are effectively used by many direct mailers and could greatly enhance the quality of mailed outreach from state education agencies.

Finally, publicity is a promotional technique used by many organizations because it does not cost anything. Usually, this involves the writing of news releases, calling press conferences, and appearing on local radio and television talk shows. There are several disadvantages that may offset the benefits accrued: news coverage does not appear sponsored by the organization, as an ad does; the organization has little control over the content of the final publicity; and the organization has no assurance that the material will be used by the media.

If an organization decides to use publicity as a promotional tool, it must perform three tasks:

1. Define the objectives of the publicity effort.
2. Search for publicity ideas that will achieve the desired effects.
3. Plan for these events in terms of specific media involvement. (Achieving the effect of spontaneity takes careful planning!)[38]

Marketing Information System

The term "marketing information system" describes the organization's system for gathering, processing, storing, and disseminating relevant

marketing information. The first thing an organization must do in setting up such a system is to determine the information needs of its managers. Kotler suggests a number of questions that can be used to make this determination.

1. What types of decisions are you regularly called upon to make?
2. What types of information do you need to make these decisions?
3. What types of information do you regularly get?
4. What types of special studies do you periodically request?
5. What types of information would you like to get that you are not now getting?
6. What information would you want daily? weekly? monthly? yearly?
7. What magazines and reports would you like to see routed to you on a regular basis?
8. What specific topics would you like to be kept informed of?
9. What types of data-analysis programs would you like to see made available?
10. What do you think would be the four most helpful improvements that could be made in the present marketing information system?[39]

Once these questions have been answered, information specialists within the organization can proceed to design an internal records system that takes into account what managers think they need, what they really need, and what is economically feasible.

A second component of the marketing information system is the marketing intelligence system, which supplies managers with the information they need to interpret results and to become aware of new problems and opportunities. Two major ways in which such information is gathered involve intelligence gathered from field agents and the use of a staff member who is hired to perform such activities as maintaining a clipping service, building a small library, and abstracting and disseminating reports.

Many of the questions to be answered through a marketing information system, you will note, are not dissimilar from those to be addressed by the management information system approach gaining poularity in government in general and being used in some education settings.

The third component of the marketing information system is the ability to do market research, which can be undertaken in an effort to learn about a specific problem facing management. Effective marketing research involves five steps: problem definition, research design, field work, data analysis, and report preparation. These steps are described in detail by Kotler and can be found in Appendix H. The description includes a discussion of data collection methods, research instruments, and sampling plans.

Notes

1. Philip Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), p. 46.

2. Philip G. Kuehl, "Marketing Perspectives for 'ERIC-Like' Information Systems," Journal of the American Society for Information Science, Vol. 23 (November-December 1972), pp. 361-362.

3. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, pp. 48-50.

4. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 95.

5. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 97.

6. Philip Kotler, Bobby J. Calder, Brian Sternthal, and Alice M. Tybout, "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1977), p. 10.

7. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 99.

8. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," p. 11.

9. Linda A. Sikorski and C. L. Hutchins, "A Study of the Feasibility of Marketing Programming for Educational R&D Products" (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974), pp. 8-9.

10. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," p. 9b.

11. Sikorski and Hutchins, "A Study of the Feasibility of Marketing Programming for Educational R&D Products," pp. 10-13.

12. Philip Kotler, et al., "The Role of Marketing in a National Institute of Education." Preliminary Report of a Planning Conference, April 2-3, 1972, p. 2.

13. Richard Bateman, et al., "A Projected Role for Marketing in the Dissemination of Products Developed by R&D Agencies" (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 1973), pp. 4-5.

14. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, pp. 125-126.

15. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 14-15.

16. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, pp. 126-129. For a detailed explanation of survey techniques, Kotler suggests that readers consult Harper W. Boyd and Ralph Westfall, Marketing Research: Text and Cases, third edition (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, 1972), Part II.

17. Keith K. Cox, James B. Higginbotham, and John Burton, "Applications of Focus Group Interviews in Marketing," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 40 (January 1976), pp. 77-80.

18. John E. Swan and Linda Jones Combs, "Product Performance and Consumer Satisfaction: A New Concept," Journal of Marketing, Vol. 4 (April 1976), pp. 25-33.

19. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 16-17.

20. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 17-20.

21. Kotler, et al., "The Role of Marketing in a National Institute of Education," p. 3.

22. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," p. 27.

23. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 171.

24. Joan L. Herman, "Research and Development in the Toy Industry: Analogues for Education" (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1976), p. 14.

25. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 28-29.

26. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, pp. 168-169.

27. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 168.

28. Cosette Kies, "The Packaging We Love So Much," International Journal of Instructional Media, Vol. 3, No. 3 (1975-76), pp. 261-268.

29. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 31-32.

30. Gerald Zaltman and Linda Sikorski, "Implications of Diffusion Research for RDx," in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1977), pp. 28-30.

31. Kotler, et al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products," pp. 37-39.

32. John Lidstone, Recruiting and Selecting Successful Salesmen (London: Business Books Limited, 1976), p. 7.

33. Robert M. Fulmer, The New Marketing (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1976), p. 427.

34. Philip Kotler, Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, and Control (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976), p. 385.

35. John Lidstone offers many suggestions for assessing staffing procedures in Recruiting and Selecting Successful Salesmen (London: Business Books Limited, 1976).

36. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 204.

37. Fulmer, The New Marketing, pp. 452-453.

38. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 212.

39. Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations, p. 257.

Part III--Marketing Strategies and Educational Dissemination: Resources for Self-Education

Marketing--An Expanding Definition	III-2
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MARKETING--AN EXPANDING DEFINITION

The Role of Marketing in the Nonprofit Sector

Ford, David. "The Marketing of Nonprofit Making Organizations - A Preliminary Report." European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 10, No. 5 (1976), pp. 266-279.

Much research has been conducted to determine the potential validity of marketing in profit making organizations. The nonprofit organization, although often in equal need of such data, has been overlooked. In a specific case study, a youth organization with a membership of 50,000 (ages 7-25) with an annual turnover of 300,000 pounds (British Sterling) was chosen. The marketing analysis concerned (1) the objectives of the organization, (2) its organizational strengths and weaknesses, (3) the competition and the market situation, and (4) the ways in which its products were priced, promoted and distributed. The advantages of such a 'business' approach to the nonprofit organization are (1) objectives can be made more explicit, (2) incompatible objectives can be eliminated, and (3) the charity can learn from the tactics of the "business."

Kotler, Philip. Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975.

In recent years, marketing has become a subject of growing interest to managers of public and private nonprofit organizations. The concepts, tools, and models that have worked so effectively to manage products and services in the profit sector are becoming increasingly relevant to the management of products and services in the nonprofit sector. Nonprofit organizations face a host of problems that would be analyzed as straight forward marketing problems if found in the profit sector. The purpose of this book is to broaden and apply the conceptual system of marketing to the marketing problems of nonprofit organizations. The book is divided into five parts and a section of cases. Part I explains the nature, role, and relevance of marketing to nonprofit organizations. Part II describes the major concepts and tools available to the organization to help it understand its markets and potential strategies. Part III discusses the four major instruments--product, price, place, and promotion--that constitute the organization's strategic and tactical means for relating to its markets. Part IV takes up the question of the internal administration of the marketing function to achieve efficient organization, information, planning, and control. Finally, Part V examines the marketing problems, opportunities, and solutions found in such specific nonprofit areas as health, education, public service, and politics.

Kotler, Philip. "Kotler Presents Whys, Hows of Marketing Audits for Firms, Nonprofit Organizations." Marketing News, Vol. 9 (March 26, 1976), p. 12.

A marketing audit is a periodic examination of a company's marketing activities with respect to problem areas and opportunities as well as a recommended plan of action to improve marketing performance. The framework of such an audit should include the company's external environment, the major elements of its marketing system, and key marketing activities "products, pricing, distribution, selling, advertising and promotion." The auditor then decides if product lines should be changed, the likely effects of price changes, etc. Finally, a report is presented in a way that will lead to action. The most important benefit of the marketing audit is its function as a catalyst to management discussion and problem solving.

Rathmell, John. Marketing in the Service Sector. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop Publishers, 1974.

Abstract not available.

Wasem, George. "Marketing For Profits and Nonprofits." Bankers Monthly, Vol. 92 (March 15, 1975), pp. 23-27.

Marketing is as instrinsic to the nonprofit sector as it is to banking. Social campaigns that use the elements of business marketing are more successful than others. The typical nonprofit has two primary market segments to consider--people to whom it provides services and people who provide it with funds. So a bank's marketing job is simpler. Also, a bank is considered successful if its profit is better than the competitor while the success of a nonprofit is more involved. The marketing jobs of the two are similar in that most nonprofits don't have an organized public information program and neither do many banks. Both do possess research data. The goals of both require the coordination of marketing-mix with service-mix. Both must face competition. Market segmentation is applicable to banking and to social marketing. The "heavy-user" concept is accepted by both. Differentiation isn't being used very well by nonprofits.

Defining Marketing Theory

Corbin, Arnold. "Corbin Says, Kaleidoscope of Marketing Presents Continuing Array of Challenges and Opportunities." Marketing News, Vol. 9 (September 26, 1975), pp. 1, 3.

AMA President Arnold Corbin sees the future role of marketing as holding many changes. Its role will be increasing in the nonprofit sector and in cooperation with government agencies such as military recruiting and foundations. How well marketing does in the future will result mostly from how well it corrects its image of low credibility. The industry must learn to survive and hopefully grow in a low growth or no growth economy. Future market-share growth will tend to come more from shifts among companies than from expansion in the total market. There will be a shift in emphasis from demand stimulation to demand management. This will be called demarketing and it will require great skill to market the idea of cutting down on consumption. The emphasis will be more on what is sold and less on how much, and marketing managers must become more financially literate. They will have to become managers of money as well as marketers of products.

Ferber, Robert. "Research Techniques to Become More Quantitative, Marketing to Take on Breadth of a Social Science." Marketing News, Vol. 10 (September 10, 1976), pp. 18-19.

By the year 2000, research techniques will have become more quantitative because of computers and data files. Marketing research will lean heavily on economics, the behavioral sciences, and mathematics. Experiments will become more important as computer simulation becomes more realistic. New social experimentation will find major applications. Trends in consumer behavior include a widening scope in consumer taste, a growing service economy, and fluctuating business periods. The traditional areas of marketing will remain, with a different emphasis. There will be a growing concern with social problems. Marketing and other business areas will increasingly overlap. In education, post-doctoral study and job sabbaticals will become a necessity, and there will be more focus on marketing education at lower levels. Marketing will become more involved in developing methods for teaching marketing to very different audiences.

Hunt, Shelby D. "The Nature and Scope of Marketing." Journal of Marketing, Vol. 40 (July 1976), pp. 17-28.

A conceptual model of the scope of marketing can be used to analyze the approaches to the study of marketing, the "nature of the marketing controversy," and the marketing science debate. There is now a consensus among marketers that most nonprofit organizations engage in numerous activities that are very similar to the marketing activities of their profit-oriented cousins. There is also consensus that the marketing procedures that have been developed for

profit-oriented organizations are equally applicable to nonprofit concerns. However, most administrators of nonprofit organizations do not perceive that many problems of nonprofit organizations are basically marketing in nature and that there is an extant body of knowledge and trained marketing practitioners that can help resolve these problems. The study of positive marketing dimensions can be called marketing science.

"Marketing Concept Under Fire and Other Big Problems For Marketers." Marketing News, Vol. 11 (July 1, 1977), p. 9.

Charles Cooper, President, Consumer Products Division, Helene Curtis Industries, says the marketing concept is under fire from a number of directions. The marketing concept is sometimes defined as thinking about business broadly, imaginatively, and from the customer's point of view. The financial people want to see the focus on improving productivity and reducing marketing costs. Also attacking the marketing concept are company lawyers and government officials. Another threat comes from special consumer interest groups which may have definitions of consumer needs that conflict with marketers' definitions. The other major problems now confronting marketers are (1) bureaucratic problems within business created by bigness, (2) the conflict between marketing and finance, and (3) the expanding educational base in marketing personnel which demands that generalists know even more about special fields.

Slade, Jack. "Education for Marketing and Advertising." Advertising Quarterly, No. 4 (Autumn 1974), pp. 14-16.

Marketing should be thought of as the whole process of analyzing, evaluating and satisfying consumer needs, of which advertising is an integral part. The first educational program in marketing began in the 1920's and was oriented towards certification exams by professional organizations. This basically took the form of evening studies without wide interest on the part of educational bodies. Interest in marketing began to increase after World War II and became very intense in the 1960's. Courses were taught on a full-time basis and universities began to develop curriculums in marketing. A poll taken of nine British universities showed that some universities would stress advertising as a necessary vocational tool for businessmen. Others would not emphasize it, considering it just a part of marketing. These two opposites are finding a common ground with all aspects of marketing, by realizing the total marketing concept.

Tucker, W. T. "Future Directions in Marketing Theory." Journal of Marketing, Vol. 38 (April 1974), pp. 30-35.

The author looks at conflicting pressures on marketing theory and offers suggestions for its future orientation. The pressures stem primarily from Kotler and Levy's call for a reevaluation of the role that marketing should play in the nonprofit sector.

Marketing Educational Products

Bateman, Richard, et al. "A Projected Role for Marketing in the Dissemination of Products Developed by R&D Agencies." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, New Orleans, February 1973. (ED 078 597, 16 p.)

In this speech, the authors contend that the adoption of a marketing approach by the disseminators of educational research and development product might well lead to a more effective way of getting products into use by educators. The marketing concept as defined comprises the planning of a coordinated set of products and programs to serve the needs of existing and potential customers. The authors explain how this marketing approach to dissemination might be adapted and applied by a product development agency, touch briefly on some of the elements of such an approach already in process, and point up some of the problems that will have to be solved if such an approach is to be implemented. Each one of six characteristics of the marketing approach is examined, and the relationship of each characteristic to the development of better dissemination strategy by R&D agencies is explored.

Kotler, Philip, et al. "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products." in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations: Conceptual and Implementation Issues of a Regionally Based Nationwide System. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University, 1977.

The purpose of this paper is to present a marketing approach to developing and disseminating educational products. The report is divided into three sections. In Part I alternative approaches to facilitating the exchange process are examined. Emerging from this discussion is the thesis that it is now appropriate for educational exchange systems to adopt the marketing concept. Part II identifies the tasks of activities that must be performed in order to operationalize marketing functions. For each activity identified, a detailed discussion of how it may be

accomplished is presented. In Part III, the organizational structures that may be developed to facilitate the performance of marketing activities are identified.

Kotler, Philip, et al. "The Role of Marketing in a National Institute of Education." Preliminary Report of a Planning Conference, April 2-3, 1972. (ED 088 155, 40p.)

As a discipline, marketing can offer several things of value to the National Institute of Education (NIE), both with respect to its design function and its dissemination. This report identifies those items that marketing can offer NIE and explains how they could be used. The authors maintain that NIE can profit from marketings (1) emphasis on understanding the behavioral system of the client and its sophisticated methods of client systems analysis; (2) procedures for testing a product concept to bring it to a state of maximal readiness for dissemination; (3) interest in the development and selection of efficient channels for making a product available to users; (4) procedures for test-marketing products; (5) methods for selecting message, media, and timing to optimize communication effectiveness; and (6) effective organizational arrangements for optimal planning, implementation, and control of programs.

Relationships among the National Institute of Education, Federally-Funded Educational Research and Development Agencies and Commercial Publishers, Final Report. New York, NY: BCMA Associates, Inc., 1977. (ED 143 339, 210 p.)

Boutwell Crane Moseley Associates (BCMA) was retained by the National Institute of Education (NIE) to study NIE's dissemination procedures, especially the Publishers Alert Service (PAS), and make a report with recommendations. The scope of work was broken down into six principal tasks: (1) an analysis of the current PAS effort; (2) an analysis and evaluation of the alternatives to PAS; (3) an analysis of special problems associated with "thin market" products; (4) an analysis of the potential role publishers could perform in a consultant or working arrangement with NIE in regard to new development activities; (5) review of consumer interest and issues that should modify or constrain any of the previous policy recommendations; and (6) prepare a final summary of all the recommendations and activities required in the other five tasks. The appendices contain: (1) special study of the use of PAS by developers other than laboratories and centers; (2) examples of alternatives to PAS; and (3) reports of counseling sessions with NIE staff members. During the course of their work, BCMA conducted interviews with NIE staff members, regional laboratories,

research and development centers, other product developers, publishers, and consumers. Lists of specific individuals and organizations contacted by BCMA, tables, examples, and other information relevant to the project are included throughout the report.

Sikorski, Linda A., and Hutchins, C. L. "A Study of the Feasibility of Marketing Programming for Educational R&D Products." San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974. (ED 095 625, 75p.)

This document argues the need for improved procedures for planning educational change. Specifically, it argues for a marketing approach which involves starting with the real needs of a particular population and planning a coordinated set of products and programs to serve those needs. The authors focus on using marketing concepts and techniques to help in situations where educational products already exist. The publication first discusses past beliefs about the approaches to educational change and how these beliefs have led to confidence in the potential usefulness of a marketing approach. Secondly, it reports the results of empirical work done to apply one such marketing concept to educational change--that of market segmentation. The application of the market segmentation concept to educational dissemination and utilization assumes that the market for educational innovations is heterogeneous, and further, that variables can be found which meaningfully divide the market into homogeneous subgroups which are expected to respond differently to marketing efforts. A discrepancy model is divided for use as a basis for market segmentation and as a guide for market selection and marketing strategy development.

Resource Centers and Marketing

Koch, H. William, and Grattidge, Walter. "Marketing the Products and Services of Information Analysis Centers." New York, NY: American Institute of Physics, 1971. (ED 053 758, 23p.)

Information analysis centers must perform the function of evaluation as well as compilation, in order to generate products and services with increased utility and user acceptance. Also, these centers must perform a dual role as wholesaler and retailer. These roles, as well as problems and examples of production and marketing experiences, are examined so as to elucidate the present and future potential of information analysis centers in improving communication among scientists. The full potential will be shown to

require marketing by information analysis centers operated by a complete spectrum of institutions, including governmental agencies, scientific and technical societies, not-for-profit groups, and commercial firms.

Kuehl, Philip G. "Marketing Perspectives for 'ERIC-Like' Information Systems." Journal of the American Society for Information Science, Vol. 23 (November-December 1972), pp. 359-364.

An understanding of marketing can provide valuable insights into the capability of success or failure of ERIC-like information systems. Three marketing perspectives are examined that contribute to a better understanding of the role such systems can play in satisfying user needs.

Veazie, Walter H., Jr., and Connolly, Thomas F. "The Marketing of Information Analysis Center Products and Services." Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Library and Information Sciences, 1971. (ED 050 772, 33p.)

Information analysis centers (IACs) represent a valuable national resource which has not been fully utilized, often because their products and services are not widely known. Recent Government economy measures demand consideration of increased marketability of these products and services and the institution of service charges as a possible source of funding. The development of national guidelines for service charges, which recognize both the basic objectives of IACs and the operating variables which are unique to the individual IAC, is required. Consideration must also be given to existing service charge policies and the advantages and disadvantages of implementing new or alternative policies. Evaluation of the marketability of existing or new products and services requires examination of customer and user markets, the scope and content of these products and services, possible channels for their distribution, advertising and sales promotion, and the prices to be charged. Two case studies, reflecting the experience of two centers which have implemented service charges and the comments of managers on proposed methods of information center cost recovery provide a base on which decisions for service charges can be made. A bibliography of 33 references provides an overview of relevant literature.

Higher Education and Marketing

Berry, Leonard L., and Allen, Bruce H. "Marketing's Crucial Role for Institutions of Higher Education." Atlanta Economic Review, Vol. 27 (July-August 1977), pp. 24-31.

Future demand for the products of higher education will be determined, in part, by the skill and resourcefulness with which institutions of higher education employ marketing. Economic hard times for higher education is no fleeting phenomenon. Some institutions will fare better than others because they will have better served the interests of various key publics and in the process will have encouraged disproportionately greater support from them. They will have better managed their exchange relations with these publics. Therefore, they will have better managed the inherent function of marketing. There are 4 steps to enhance the marketing effectiveness of an institution: (1) adapting the organizational-structure to encourage a more effective performance of marketing functions; (2) identifying and assigning priorities to the publics; (3) analyzing exchange relations; and (4) formulating, implementing, and evaluating strategies.

Berry, Leonard L., and George, William R. "Marketing the University-Opportunity in an Era of Crisis." Atlanta Economic Review, Vol. 25 (July-August 1975), pp. 4-8.

Marketing management is considered from the viewpoint that there is much that can be done by the university to improve its marketing and, as a likely result, its market and financial position. Some of the types of marketing-research that colleges and universities should consider conducting are student activities, exit interviews, ombudsman feedback, institutional image, educational program focus groups, market analyses of new and existing educational programs. A systematic marketing research effort, along with a systematic means for disseminating data once collected, provides a basis for seeking competitive advantage. Coordinating the elements of marketing strategy is critical, and it is proposed that organizational shifts be made in order to pinpoint marketing management responsibility-authority and to facilitate coordination of activities.

Miller, James R. "Systems Approach to Marketing Tenets Seen Helping Educator Improve Service." Marketing News, Vol. 10 (December 3, 1976), p. 4.

Successful former businesspeople who have become higher educators realize that education is no longer a growth industry with a near monopoly position. This presentation is a basic explanation of the use of educational and marketing concepts as they relate to university management and to the marketing of continuing education programs. Industry makes good use of the total marketing systems concept. The same approach is applicable to a university environment. University administration can view various subsystems of inputs from faculty using facilities through

the distribution of knowledge by teaching in order to reach the students. The systems approach offers benefits to students and faculty alike. It looks first to the target markets or audiences and defines various market segments. It can analyze trends of these subgroups in order to fulfill the needs that the trends manifest by placing them within the scope of future plans and budget allowances.

Public Policy Decision Making and Marketing Research

Dyer, Robert F., and Shimp, Terence A. "Enhancing the Role of Marketing Research in Public Policy Decision Making." Journal of Marketing, Vol. 41 (January 1977), pp. 63-67.

The purpose of this article is to enhance and expand the role of marketing research as an input to public policy decision making. The article presents evidence that the marketing research field may be guilty of alienating public policy makers; suggests that the posture of regulatory agencies is one of increased receptivity toward relevant consumer research prior to the formulation of public policy; provides some guidelines for marketing and consumer researchers to increase the impact of their research findings; and reviews a recent mechanism used by a regulatory agency which may serve as a model for input of public policy research findings.

Wilkie, William L., and Gardner, David M. "The Role of Marketing Research in Public Policy Decision Making." Journal of Marketing, Vol. 38 (January 1974), pp. 38-47.

Government agencies are making increasingly active attempts to assure and maintain a "fair competitive environment" for consumers. One important characteristic of these public policy acitivities has been an underutilization of the skills and insights of researchers in marketing and consumer behavior. This article explores reasons for this underrepresentation and proposes means by which marketing research can contribute to future policy decisions. The policies of the Federal Trade Commission and that agency's recent increased interest in marketing research and its uses are discussed at length.

Supplement

Selected Marketing References

Churchill, G. Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations. Hinsdale, IL: Dryden Press, 1976.

Elam, H. G., and Paley, N. Marketing for the Non-Marketing Executive. New York: AMACOM, American Management Association, 1978.

Engel, J.; Kollat, D.; and Blackwell, R. Consumer Behavior, 3rd Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978.

Engel, J.; Wales, H.; and Warshaw, M. Promotional Strategy, 3rd Edition. Homewood, IL: Irwin, 1975.

Kotler, P. Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning and Control, 3rd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1976.

Lee, F. NICSEM Educational Marketing: A Cookbook of Techniques and Ideas. Los Angeles, CA: University of Southern California, National Information Center for Special Education Materials, 1978.

Montana, P. J. (Ed.). Marketing in Nonprofit Organizations. New York: AMACOM, American Management Associations, 1978.

Robertson, T. Innovative Behavior and Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

PLANNING

Andrews, Bryan. Creative Product Development. New York: Longman, Inc., 1975.

All phases of new product development are covered. The emphasis is on bringing together several complementary skills, e.g., technological, marketing, and administrative. Numerous examples are given throughout the book for each phase of development. The revitalization of existing products or services is considered equally with new concepts.

Astolfi, Adrienne A. "Must We Really Improve Productivity." Hospital Financial Management, Vol. 31 (February 1977), pp. 30-34.

Productivity is the output received for a given input, not solely labor efficiency. Programs aimed at improving health care productivity are faced with the general problems of education about productivity, marketing improvements, lack of incentives, and policy and planning. Specific problems include measurement of productivity, implementation of innovation, evaluation and dissemination, and technology. However, some steps can be taken now to increase productivity. Implement accepted methods more extensively. Boards of trustees should include productivity in their goals. Health administration educational programs should be given more exposure to the concept of productivity, establish productivity committees in health institutions, develop productivity incentives, encourage research in productivity improvement, formulate working relationships with the business sector, and disseminate to each other and the nation the present methods that increase productivity.

Computer Applications Project. Phase I. Final Report. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1976. (ED 139 374, 110p.)

Phase I of this project for the development of educational materials to teach the user of the computer (1) as an aid to management and decision making, or (2) as an instructional tool, included expansion of background technical reports, completion of computer programs, printing of field test versions of materials, commercial publisher interaction, and a market survey. Despite the existence of sizeable potential markets, lack of commercial interest in publication necessitated an analysis of alternative publication possibilities and a selection of a regional R&D laboratory as publisher. Appendix A contains the working marketing plan for the education materials dealing with the computer as an instructional resource. Appendix B contains the analysis of market results.

Dalhouse, Warner N. "How to Make a Marketing Plan." Banking, Vol. 65 (August 1972), pp. 40-43.

In today's future shock atmosphere, it is no longer possible to do things the hard way, the old way, and make progress. Without a marketing plan the banker is doomed to the life of a firefighter. He must develop a procedure of management by crisis. The marketing plan is a logical extension of the corporate plan which identifies specific objectives for a specified time. It will allocate people and financial resources efficiently, provide a basis for agreement within the bank, organize and discipline thinking, and enhance the opportunity for innovation. Included is the Stonier Graduate School's outline for a marketing plan that can be used as a beginning point for any bank and a checklist to determine if your bank is moving toward adopting a marketing concept.

Kazimirski, J., et al. Creating a Market. Geneva (Switzerland): International Labour Office, 1968. (ED 068 746, 178p.)

The second in a series of programmed books, "Creating a Market" is published by the International Labour Office as a manual for persons studying marketing. This manual was designed to meet the needs of the labor organization's technical cooperation programs and is primarily concerned with consumer goods industries. Using a fill-in-the-blanks and question-and-answer format, the handbook is used for individual study. Among the topics covered are market research, product planning, pricing, advertising, and distribution. Each chapter is followed by a review and a bibliography. A glossary of business terms, international sources, and commonly used sales techniques comprise the appendices.

"Keeping Products Alive and Well In The Market." Product Marketing, Vol. 6 (November 1977), pp. 46-53.

Most products go through a life cycle that spans the stages from birth, adolescence, and maturity, to decline and death. While no product can live and prosper forever, both the length and the magnitude of its life cycle depend to a large extent on decisions made by 4 groups of people-the Four Cs: your company, your competitors, your customers, and your consumer. As a marketing manager, it is your task to take the actions of the 3 external Cs (competitors, customers, consumers) into account in shaping your company's actions in order to optimize your results. Creating primary demand seems to be an educational process that involves activating people's needs and focusing them on the product in question. As your product enters the saturation stage of

its life cycle, there develops a no-holds-barred fight for market share. Instead of replacement of a current product at what seems to be the end of its cycle, an extension strategy can often build on a product's accomplishments.

Mowen, Maryanne M., et al. Launching New Educatonal Concepts: A Guide to Planning, Developing and Marketing Educational Programs. Phoenix: Arizona State Department of Education, 1977. (ED 148 019, 54p.)

This handbook presents a step-by-step outline of how to successfully launch and implement a new educational concept or program. A heavy emphasis is placed on the "program marketing" approach, which assumes that a new program must be "sold" to its "consumers" (i. e., teachers or students) if it is to be successfully implemented. Because the handbook is meant to be used as a ready reference, it is organized into chapters that correspond to the various stages of program development and implementation, including conceptualization, planning development, piloting, implementing, and review and feedback. To further facilitate quick reference, the handbook's format is based on "information mapping." Key concepts are spotlighted in the left margin and major sections are divided into information blocks by heavy black lines. Primary concepts in each section are capitalized, while secondary concepts are printed in lower case.

Sparks, Jack D. "A Marketing Plan That Works." AGB Reports, Vol. 18 (January-February 1976), pp. 28-35.

Olivet College's marketing plan included survey of students, alumni, townspeople, and doners and analysis of the college's customer appeal, prices, and product mix. The author reports that the marketing objectives are being met and discusses the rationale and problems of applying business marketing principles to education.

INFORMATION SYSTEMS

Caldwell, Phyllis A. "Information Systems: An Introduction for Adult Educators." Speech presented at the National Adult Education Association Meeting, Detroit, 1977. (ED 146 449, 25p.)

In this paper, the author's primary focus is on a marketing information system and its potential importance for adult educators. The content is in seven sections. The first two sections briefly introduce information systems in general and their relevance for adult educators. The third section briefly describes general management information systems; the Massachusetts adult basic education information system is provided as an illustration. The next two sections briefly highlight two systems, research or resource information systems and occupational information systems. The ERIC Clerearinghouse on Career Education and the ADELL (Adult Education and Lifelong Learning) Clearinghouse are provided as examples for the first system and the Massachusetts Occupational Information System is used to illustrate the latter system. The sixth section describes the marketing information system, outlines key questions for determining the marketing information needs of managers, discusses five functional components of the system (information sources, collection, process, reporting, and information uses), and identifies the dimensions along which the system might be evaluated. The final section discusses the functional components of a marketing information system for continuing education and summarizes some of the benefits anticipated for a continuing education program through the use of the system.

Computer Applications Project. Phase I. Final Report. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1976 (ED 139 374, 110 p.)

Phase I of this project for the development of educational materials to teach the user of the computer (1) as an aid to management and decision making, or (2) as an instructional tool, included expansion of background technical reports, completion of computer programs, printing of field test versions of materials, commercial publisher interaction, and a market survey. Despite the existence of sizeable potential markets, lack of commercial interest in publication necessitated an analysis of alternative publication possibilities and a selection of a regional R&D laboratory as publisher. Appendix A contains the working marketing plan for the education materials dealing with the computer as an instructional resource. Appendix B contains the analysis of market results.

Radford, K. J. Information Systems for Strategic Decisions. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing Co., 1978.

The author focuses on how to develop information systems that will support the strategic managerial activities of planning and policy making, in which the future directions and objectives of the organization are decided. The book discusses the development of information systems in recent years, describes the elements of a modern information system, and outlines the requirements upon which the design of the overall information system can be based. The prime functions of an information system are the acquisition, transmission, presentation and retention of information useful in decision making. The types of decisions that must be made and the nature of the information necessary to make those decisions are also discussed.

Smith, Paula. "Unique tool for Markete rs--PIMS." Dun's Review, Vol. 108 (October 1976), pp. 95-100.

PIMS (Profit Impact of Marketing Strategies) is a secret competitive tool used by scores of large and medium-sized companies. Specifically, PIMS is a computerized program for planning market strategy run by the nonprofit Strategic-Planning Institute. PIMS contains a data pool of otherwise totally unavailable information on the marketing experiences of its members and encompasses more than 650 product-lines. The data comes from each member. A member can then, through computer simulation, test its own market strategies against the real experiences of hundreds of comparable companies, including competitors. Basically, a member company wants PIMS to show what a particular strategic move will cost and how much better off the business will be afterwards. For example, PIMS modes can forecast how much return-on-investment will change because of strategic moves in marketing, research-and-development, capital-investment in equipment, or other areas.

"U.S. Census Bureau Markets Its Wide Range of Data to Potential Users, Including Marketers, Researchers." Marketing News, Vol. 9 (June 4, 1976), p. 6.

Employees of the U.S. Bureau of Census are currently exhibiting its services at the national conferences of many large associations. Since the use of statistical data has become increasingly important to marketers, planners, etc., the bureau should be present at the American Marketing Association's Annual Conference. Currently the Census Bureau is trying to develop a flexible data-base and an adequate variety of access techniques. Such attempts include seminars to inform interested users on the

availability, access and extent of its data including review population estimates, techniques for locating data, etc. A particular focus for the education program are librarians. Topics for these special training sessions include--general reference sources, locating basic statistics, access methods, etc. Finally, the Bureau has established data user services officers to answer inquiries, conduct workshops and seek out potential data users.

CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

Butler, Jacqueline, and McGinty, John. Bilingual Instructional Materials Dissemination Project. Report I: A Follow-up Survey of SEDL Product Adopters. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1976. (ED 132 866, 28 p.)

The Southwest Evaluation and Research Division conducted a survey of 165 purchasers of bilingual instructional materials produced by SEDL to determine which information channels predominate in the curriculum adoption-decision process. The findings of this survey may be useful in the selection of the most efficient ways to communicate information to educators about new instructional products and practices. A survey form was distributed which asked the purchasers to indicate the following: (1) how they first became aware of the SEDL bilingual instructional materials; (2) other sources by which they obtained information; (3) what single information source was most influential; (4) the degree of their personal involvement in this decision; (5) others within their school district or agency who participated in the decision making; (6) availability for further survey information-gathering assistance; (7) current use of the purchased SEDL materials in the classroom; (8) general comments regarding the purchase of the materials. Results and decussion with respect to each of the eight issues are reviewed in turn. The major conclusions were: (1) adopters most often obtain initial information about new instructional products from personal information sources; (2) few purchasers based their adoption-decision on the single initial product information source; (3) the most influential factors were observation of the products in use and personal communication with SEDL personnel; and (4) decisions are most often group decisions.

Comprehensive Analysis of the Market Survey for Computer Applications Project. Phase I. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1976. (ED 139 375, 132 p.)

In order to assess the potential market for educational materials developed to teach the use of the computer as an instructional tool and as an aid to management and decision making, a mailed questionnaire was used to survey randomly selected college professors of educational and business administration, school district superintendents, and secondary school teachers. A sizeable, although not commercially profitable, user market was identified for both types of materials, with inservice training being identified as an area for market growth. The survey instruments and data tables are included in the report with questionnaire cover letters and selected responses appended.

Green, Robert T., Langeard, Eric, et al. "Innovation in the Service Sector--Some Empirical Findings." Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 11. (August 1974), pp. 323-326.

The objectives of this study were to determine the characteristics of an innovator group not previously tested to use this information in the understanding of innovator overlap. The service sector has only recently begun to receive concentrated attention from marketing scholars, and the findings reported here provide an indication of the characteristics of an important consumer group within that sector. The findings suggest that retail service innovators are a reasonably distinct group when compared with the rest of the population. The innovator overlap results support the findings of previous work that innovators do exist across product and service categories. However, it was found that these multicategory innovators could not be distinguished from single-category innovators in terms of the characteristics of people who are general innovators across other product categories.

Gronhaug, Kjell. "Profiling the Adopters in An Organization Context." European Research, Vol. 5 (March 1977), pp. 51-55.

The adoption and diffusion of innovation have attracted much attention in marketing during the last few decades. Two main themes usually considered in a study of diffusion of innovations are (1) the adoption process of individual adopting units and (2) the diffusion process. In a study utilizing 28 adopters and 31 nonadopters, the effectiveness of selected organization variables in describing adopters vs. nonadopters of an internal communication system were examined. Variables related to resources, structure, and environmental contact may account for variations in the propensity to adopt the product studied. Compared with nonadopters, adopters had more formalized relationships with other organizations and were larger, which yielded information or marketing planning. Also, size, formalized relationships, and number of divisions contribute to improved predictions.

Hall, Douglas C., and Turnbull, Brenda J. Use of Innovative Practices: Exploring the Discrepancy Measure as a Tool for Studying Implementation. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974. (ED 095 624, 55 p.)

This report explores the possibility of using the discrepancy measure to assess the implementation of educational innovations. The discrepancy measure was derived from the decision to segment the educational market,

and to select or develop marketing strategies, on the basis of discrepancies between the potential user and the requirements of a product. Discrepancies occur because the nature of the product is incompatible with the nature of the user. The first section of the report considers the discrepancy measure in the general context of implementation assessment and indicates that the measure makes a potential methodological contribution in this area. An analysis of existing data, in the second section of the report, indicates that, even in its present form, the measure generates relatively much data on implementation and permits a rough classification of different implementation behaviors. A number of modifications which could be made in the measure to make it even more suitable for the collection of implementation data are discussed in the third section of the report.

Zaltman, Gerald; Duncan, Robert; Holbek, Jonny. Innovations and Organizations. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1973.

The authors have 3 major objectives: (1) to provide a brief overview of the research on innovations, specifically on the types of innovations and the variables and conditions affecting the process of innovation/adoption by organizations; (2) to focus on the innovation/adoption process at it takes place within multi-member units of adoption--the book stresses the characteristics of organizations in terms of structures and processes that facilitate and inhibit innovation; and (3) to look at the environment within which the innovation/adoption process takes place and the kinds of environments that are conducive to the introduction and diffusion of innovations.

Tauber, Edward M. "Reduce New Product Failures: Measure Needs as Well as Purchase Interest." Journal of Marketing, Vol. 37 (July 1973), pp. 61-64.

Present market research may deceive us to introduce products with limited potential because consumers may be favorably disposed to a new brand yet have no need for it. This paper presents an approach for measuring perceived needs and tells how this measure relates to the traditional purchase intention scale.

Robertson, Thomas S. Innovative Behavior and Communication. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1971.

This book attempts to place diffusion theory within a marketing context and within a management decision-making framework. It provides a review and structuring of the far-ranging diffusion literature--from communication

research, sociology, anthropology, economics, and marketing. Part One focuses on "innovative behavior" and examines individual adoption processes and social diffusion processes. Part Two is essentially communication theory and reflects the author's view of diffusion as a communication process. Primary concerns in this section are personal influence and opinion leadership as well as the structure and functioning of communication variables. Part Three reflects a growing sophistication within the diffusion perspective and considers attitude theory and generalized mathematical models of new product acceptance.

PACKAGING AND PRICING

Kaufman, Roger. "Package Paralysis." Educational Technology, Vol. 17 (February 1977), pp. 50-52.

Packaging of courses/programs/kits on needs assessment, instructional design, and evaluation are becoming slicker as they aim at popular consumption, but are they a panacea?

Kies, Cosette. "The Packaging We Love So Much." International Journal of Instructional Media, Vol. 3, No. 3 (1975-76), pp. 261-268.

Marketing expertise has employed sophisticated and psychological methods in packing a variety of products, including those items stocked by libraries and media centers; books, records, periodicals and audio-visual materials. This packaging skill has not been utilized to the degree it might be by libraries, which could benefit in using the packaging of library materials. Awareness and consciousness of packaging techniques could result in more attractive display and possibly increased use.

Lamoureux, Marvin E. Threshold Pricing: A Strategy for the Marketing of Adult Education Courses. Paper presented at the Adult Education Research Conference, Minneapolis, Minnesota, April 21, 1977. (ED 141 516, 43p.)

Because threshold pricing's scope for course price development had a good potential for application to the marketing of services by nonprofit organizations, this study's purpose was to determine the existence and applicability of course price thresholds or ranges to the decision-making framework of adult educators, with special reference to professionally-oriented university continuing education programs. Using results from an extensive socio-economic questionnaire completed by 242 participants attending 11 continuing education courses at the University of British Columbia, hypotheses based on threshold pricing theory were tested. Significant differences existed between course prices and participant-determined upper and lower bound prices. Positive and significant correlations occurred for selected "wealth" and "continuing education commitment" variables, as both variables related to upper and lower bound prices. The author notes that the study defined benefical uses for both market segmentation considerations and threshold pricing practices as each related to adult education; however, it is suggested that further studies be conducted to broaden the scope of these marketing strategy techniques. The first half of this paper provides background information on concepts related to product pricing and consumer reactions. The second half describes the study.

Margulies, Walter P. "Packaging--An Essential Marketing Ingredient." Advertising Age, Vol. 44 (November 21, 1973), p. 128.

Of all the developments looking to a better and easier life, few have played a more vital role than packaging. In its evolution from the primary functions of containing and protecting a product, packaging became a valuable, and often the only, advertising medium available to manufacturers. It also gave rise to the need for distinctive branding, thus helping lay the foundations of modern marketing. Today packaging is more diversified, more sophisticated and more important than ever. It is an essential marketing ingredient, an integral part of the incredibly complex distribution process that supplies us with an unending flow of goods. Without packaging the system we know today would be unable to function. Innovation has been a packaging keynote since World War II. New types of packaging and new materials, particularly plastics, have revolutionized the industry.

Merchandise Pricing. Instructor's Manual. Washington, D.C.: Small Business Administration, May 1970. (ED 059 489, 70p.)

The 20th publication in a series of subject presentations in the field of administrative management for use by educators and businessmen who teach management courses is presented. These presentations are intended to be particularly useful to the Distributive Education in the smaller community where library research facilities are limited and equipment for the production of visual aids is not readily available. The lecture is designed to be presented to the businessman in nontechnical language. The Lesson Plan is an outline of the material covered which may be used as a teaching guide. The Presentation may be used as written or modified to meet local needs and conditions. The Visual Aids are photographic copies of the set of visual aids which are available for this topic. These visuals are 8- by 10-inch colored transparencies prepared for use on overhead projectors. The Supply Department contains materials which may be reproduced locally for distribution to course participants. Cases in Points are short actual small-business management cases which may be used to augment the presentation and to develop discussion. The Incubator contains ideas for stimulating futher thought and discussion by the participants. A bibliography and list of Small Business Administration field offices are included.

DISTRIBUTION (DIFFUSION)

Bernhardt, Irwin, & Mackenzie, Kenneth D. Some Problems in Using Diffusion Models for New Products. University Park: Pennsylvania State University; Ontario: Waterloo University, 1970. (ED 046 078, 58 p.)

This paper analyzes some of the problems of using diffusion models to formulate marketing strategies for new products. Though future work in this area appears justified, many unresolved problems limit application. There is no theory for adoption and diffusion processes; such a theory is outlined in this paper. The present models are too restrictive and fail to include the variables that a marketing manager has at his or her disposal. Six models that remove some theoretical and methodological restrictions are presented. The marketing implications for the assumptions in the models are discussed, and estimation problems are considered.

Jwaideh, Alice R., & Bhola, H. S. (Eds.). Research in Diffusion of Educational Innovations: A Report with an Agenda. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, School of Education, 1974. (ED 096 950, 120 p.)

Five educational experts in educational change and diffusion research presented papers at the annual summer Research Conference in Instructional Systems Technology. The papers included a review of the general status of the field, a discussion of the need for further developing applied behavioral science and applying it to the problems of education and a definition of organization development which points out its use of applied behavioral science concepts and its emphasis on the system instead of on the individual. A discussion of the Pilot State Dissemination Program documents another approach to educational change. The fifth paper in the series emphasizes the need to know exactly what happened in change attempts and points out that case studies can advance our knowledge as well as our educational practice. To conclude the series of five papers, the guest editors present an overview of the conference and speculate about future approaches to planned educational change.

Moyer M. S. "Toward More Responsive Marketing Channels." Journal of Retailing, Vol. 51 (Spring 1975), pp. 7-19, 112.

One of the greatest changes in the American distributive network is the increase in vertical marketing alliances. The retailer is challenging the dominance of manufacturers and wholesalers as a mark of this system. A central issue

of this system is whether or not this new channel form can adapt to meet the changing market requirements. Retailers, in becoming large enough to lead the marketing channels, lost communication with and responsiveness to the consumer. To overcome this, retailers need to adopt formal market-research. This need not be expensive and would help them respond to marketing opportunities. Retailers can exploit their high vertical programming potential by using specification buying which would encourage innovations that consumers want in products. Retailers should also take a stand as consumer-advocates rather than insulating themselves against consumer complaints.

Zaltman, Gerald, and Sikorski, Linda. "Implications of Diffusion Research for RDx." In Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations: Conceptual and Implementation Issues of a Regionally Based Nationwide System. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University, 1977.

The RDx is carving out a role in a Targer process, that of detecting practitioner needs and matching them against R&D resources, with the goal of providing more responsive research, development, and delivery. The diffusion literature offers a number of principles for the RDx in this endeavor. However, since much of the research deals with diffusing single or specific innovations, it must be interpreted cautiously. The authors discuss 23 principles drawn from the literature which apply to the work of the RDx and offer 10 conclusions.

PROMOTION

Public Relations

Newsom, Doug, and Scott, Alan. This Is PR: The Reality of Public Relations. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1976.

Few textbooks can offer how-to help for communicators/disseminators, but this book is an exception: It is full of information on persuasion, identifying audiences, doing your own research, choosing the right message, choosing media, working with media people, handling sound systems, getting photography releases, much more. Includes Stuart H. Britt's set of learning principles applicable to consumer behavior: unpleasant appeals can be learned as readily as pleasant ones; appeals made over a period of time are more effective; unique messages are better remembered; it's easier to recognize an appeal than to recall it; knowledge of results increases learning of a message; repetition is more effective when related to belongingness and satisfaction; messages are easier to learn when they do not interfere with earlier habits; learning a new pattern of behavior can interfere with remembering something else.

Ross, Robert D. The Management of Public Relations: Analysis and Planning External Relations. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1977.

This book contains a great deal of information on how to plan and assess public relations programs. Much attention is given to the importance of developing careful objectives and, in the process, a strong case is made for practicing "management by objectives."

Advertising

Advertising Services Module. A Second-Level Option for Distribution and Marketing. New York State Education Department, Albany, New York, Bureau of Occupational and Career Curriculum Development, 1976. (ED 135 945, 48p.)

Developed as a second level option to follow an introductory course in marketing and distribution, or as an advanced course in continuing education, this guide outlines principles and practices needed by persons who wish to enter the field of advertising services or for individuals who desire to upgrade their skills in this area. The content, built on a base of elementary understandings, is designed to permit the student to apply his or her knowledge and skills at each step of the educational process. The introductory section covers employment demands, instructional

administrative considerations, facilities, student attributes, course format, teaching suggestions, and expected outcomes. The five units are titled Advertising--An Overview, Factors Influencing Creation of Advertisements, Advertising Media, The Campaign, and Advertising Layout and Copy. Each unit contains performance objectives and a content outline with corresponding suggested activities. A list of resources is also included.

Koeninger, Jimmy G. You Be the Judge: Newspaper Advertising Layout. Columbus: Ohio State University, Ohio Distributive Education Materials Laboratory. (ED 112 225, 48p.)

The learning package is designed to provide the marketing educator with a culminating activity for an instructional unit focusing on advertising layout principles and procedures. It is to be used in conjunction with 35mm slides of newpaper advertisements, which the student views and rates in comparison with the ratings of a panel of experts. A motivational device is employed in awarding the students "profile points" based upon their ratings. Each of the 10 case studies includes background information, advertising copy, and copy rating profile. A checklist of advertising layout principles and layout rating sheet are also included.

Lynn, Jerry R. "Message Effects of Public Service Advertising." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism, Ft. Collins, Colorado, August 1973. (ED 083 596, 23p.)

Public service advertisements, disseminated via the mass media, have been credited with "positive attitudinal effects" in past research, but only certain kinds of such advertisements are really effective. Of the types of appeals used in television commercials--informative, emotional, "establishments" (or status quo), and fear--the establishment appeal had the least favorable effect on a test group of 248 sophomore college students. In fact, both the establishment and information-based appeals elicited decidedly negative attitudinal responses from those surveyed, although older, more socially secure, and female respondents tended to favor such appeals. Emotional appeals were most effective with all the respondents, even overcoming fatalism. The test results suggest the production of public service advertisements for specific subgroups of television viewers.

Malickson, David L.; Nason, John W. Advertising-How to Write the Kind that Works. New York: Charles Scribner & Sons, 1977. (ED 146 628, 221p.)

The object of this book is to aid copywriters in creating effective advertising. It suggests orderly procedures for planning advertising, as well as some simple writing guidelines. Chapters discuss the function of the copywriter, organization and relationships, adapting advertising for the medium in which it will appear, applying psychology, basic writing style, basic print techniques, copywriting for different print media, copywriting for broadcast media, campaign planning, merchandising advertising, copy research, and production pitfalls. The book includes a list of helpful publishers and organizations and provides numerous examples of effective advertisements.

Pearce, Michael, et al. Appraising the Economic and Social Effects of Advertising. A Review of Issues and Evidence. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Marketing Science Institute, 1971. (ED 074 776, 211 p.)

Three major aspects of advertising/marketing communications are reviewed comprehensively in this report. Consumer behavior with its associated attitudes and purchasing behavior are discussed in regard to the choices of specific brands within major product categories. The relationship between advertising and the structure of markets is considered by presenting a review of the theories and evidence of the economic effects in this field. Finally, the variety of social issues that arise from concerns about advertising's impact on public values and attitudes are discussed with articular emphasis on the nature of persuasion, taste, and information versus deception. Of particular interest is a section on the effect of advertising on children.

Ramond, Charles. Advertising Research: The State of the Art. New York: Association of National Advertisers, Inc., 1976. (ED 144 072, 136p.)

This book summarizes and appraises current knowledge and practice in the field of advertising research. The material is presented under the following chapter headings: aim and scope, how advertising communicates, how advertising sells, theme research, selecting target audiences, copy research, studies of advertising frequency, media research, budget research, and the future of advertising research. Appendixes listing advertising research reviews and references are included.

Direct Mail

Delay, Robert F. "Retail Direct Mail Is Only Tip of Direct Marketing Iceberg." Advertising Age (September 30, 1974), p. 65.

Historically, the hub of American merchandising has been the retail outlet, but direct marketing is changing all of that. Direct-mail expenditures exceeded $3.8 billion in 1973. However, there is evidence that the trend of direct response advertising is toward non-mail vehicles chosen and guided by computer-based demographics selectivity. Today's retail direct marketers use newspapers, magazines, catalogs, package inserts, insert cards in books, radio, TV, closed circuit TV and the telephone. Reasons are listed why the use of direct marketing by retailers is proliferating. Examples are included of successful innovations in direct marketing. Syndication, an effective co-op technique for stretching retail dollars, is increasing with expanded use of installment credit cards. Syndicated mailings involve a manufacturer, a syndicator or packager of promotion programs and a selling organization with a large mailing list.

Anderson, Glenn L. "How Colleges, Universities, and Other Educational Institutions Can Use Direct Mail More Effectively." Series of articles which appeared in College and University Business, January-June 1965. (ED 068 737, 15p.)

This series of magazine articles stresses ways in which educational institutions can use direct mail advertising to promote lectures, concerts, and other programs to off-campus audiences. The application of direct mail principles to selling education is suggested, and the advantages and disadvantages of direct mailings by colleges and universities are discussed. Successful techniques for advertising are described, with emphasis on their use by educational institutions. Ideas for compiling and evaluating mailing lists are given to ensure maximum community support.

Wunderman, Lester. "Direct-Marketing--Its Ten Worst Problems, Ten Best Innovations." Advertising Age (May 3, 1976), pp. 59-60.

The most current and urgent direct-marketing problems are: (1) diminished consumer appetites, (2) increased cost of printing and postage and the subsequent loss of direct marketing advantages, (3) the increased expense of credit selling, (4) an eroding media base, (5) a growing suspicion and lack of faith by consumers in any business, (6) consumers' motivations and needs that are now obscure, (7) a lack of product-innovation, (8) rusty marketing tools, (9) too few thinkers attracted to the industry, and (10) tight venturing capital. Innovations that can change this downward trend are: (1) Products can be converted to services--cars are not selling, but transportation is, (2) the use of media other than the mails, (3) use of credit

cards, (4) increased use of television and the telephone, (5) large corporations entering direct marketing and boosting consumer faith, (6) better consumer research, (7) the marketing industry contributing product ideas to manufacturers.

Other Promotional Strategies

Frankel, B. "Sales Promotion is Marketing Giant, but It's Misunderstood, Underestimated, and Mishandled." Marketing News, Vol. 11 (October 7, 1977), p. 6.

Sales-promotion includes 11 techniques: (1) Couponing. (2) Sampling. (3) Premiums. (4) Trade-shows and exhibits. (5) Contests and sweepstakes. (6) Trade allowances. (7) Free goods and rebates. (8) Cents-off packs. (9) Bonus packs. (10) Point-of-purchase materials. (11) Consumer education and demonstration activities. Six factors explain the increased importance of promotion: (1) Promotion has become a more acceptable tool. (2) The growth of the product-management system has encouraged more production. (3) The increased number of products causes increased emphases on promotion. (4) Increases in competition in many product categories increases the use of promotion. (5) The changing economic conditions have caused many manufacturers to increase their promotion activities. (6) Trade pressures increase which causes increased allowances.

SALES (STAFF DEVELOPMENT)

Anderson, George B. The Dartnell/Anderson 20-Point System for Guaranteed Sales Success. Chicago: The Dartnell Corporation, 1970.

This book discusses twenty points on which salespeople should periodically assess themselves. The points are divided into four categories: personal--(1) Did I make a favorable impression on the customer? (2) Did I talk from the customer's viewpoint? (3) Did I find the basic desire or need on the part of the customer and then capitalize on it? (4) Did I encourage the customer to do part of the talking? (5) Did I give the customer any reason for coming back to me rather than to another salesman? proof--(6) Did I properly convey the background and merits of the company? (7) Was I able to tell the customer at least one new beneficial thing about the product? (8) Was the customer thoroughly acquainted with all the advantages of the product or service by the time I concluded my solicitation? (9) Did I make the customer participate in the demonstration? (10) Did I offer the customer at least one advantage he could not obtain from any other source? (11) Did I prove the endorsement of others? (12) Did I use my company's sales aids to the best advantage? opposition--(13) Did I overcome customer objection without encouraging argument? (14) Did I do a positive job of selling all the way? (15) Did I avoid letting the customer get me off the main sales line? (16) Did I encourage the customer to ask questions and did I answer them intelligently? the close--(17) Did I give the customer logical reasons why he would benefit from immediate purchase? (18) Did I make a proper summary of the points that should influence purchase of the product? (19) Did I make a definite, direct appeal for the order at the proper time? (20) Did I leave the way open for a successful call-back or resale?

Batis, Harry P. Wholesale Selling, a Distributive Education Manual and Answer Book. Austin: Texas University, Austin Division of Extension, February 1972. (ED 074 244, 167p.)

This document containing assignments on 16 varied topics, with objectives, content information, and a separate answer book, was designed to be used by secondary or post-secondary distributive education students and by wholesale distributors for use as training guides for employees. Topics discussed include: (1) thinking about selling today, (2) human behavior in selling, (3) qualifications needed for selling, (4) human-centered selling, (5) the wholesale customer, (6) motivating the buyer of wholesale products, (7) using merchandising knowledge, (8) developing a sales

plan, (9) putting behavioral science to use, (10) applying sales techniques, (11) the outside and inside industrial salesman, and (12) the wholesale route salesman.

Bursk, Edward C., and Hutchinson, G. Scott. Salesmanship and Sales Force Management. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Howard University Press, 1971.

The authors have selected nineteen Howard Business Review articles to provide a well-rounded picture of the theories, studies, and techniques for salesmen and sales managers to use to improve themselves. Sales training is covered in a manner pertinent to in-service training. The last section of the book discusses the behavior approach to promotion--how to identify and develop new markets.

Canei, Robert A. Effective Retail Sales Techniques. Columbus: Ohio State University, Ohio Distributive Education Materials Laboratory. (ED 112 218, 255p.)

The manual is a 12-hour program for adults who are working or preparing to work as retail salespeople. It can also be used as a summarization manual for high school students. The manual consists of five sessions which take the individual from the human aspect of sales to the related sales technique. The sessions are entitled: employee and customer relations, approaches and presentations, objections and closing the sale, suggestion selling, and sales demonstrations. Each session provides an instructional outline, related methods, and appropriate handouts and transparency originals. The appendix lists keys of session evaluation, promotional devices, suggested films, case studies, and supplementary handouts and transparency masters.

Chabot, Daniel. "A New Look at Accountability for Your Sales Organization." Training and Development Journal, Vol. 30 (March 1976), p. 46-49.

The problem of increasing costs in acquiring sales can be met by training salespeople to become more effective and productive. An accountability system for salespeople and sales managers is presented based on the return on investment management formula, a combination which considers responsibilities, objectives, and indicators.

Domingez, George S. How to Be a Successful Product Manager. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Education for Management, Inc., 1976.

This manual is intended as a self-learning course for the new product manager. The last section provides all detail required to write a market plan.

Dreyfack, Raymond. "Marketplace Myopia--Income Boosters for the Success Minded Salesman." The American Salesman, Vol. 22 (March 1977), pp. 41-46.

Stay responsive to the customers you serve--to their needs, wants, problems, questions, apprehensions, and fears--and you will get the business you need to survive. If you believe you can make your customers swallow what you want them to swallow, your competitors will take over the market. Several suggestions for the success minded salesman include (1) Learn who your customers are. (2) Find out what they want and respond to their needs. (3) Explore the potential of products by specific market groups and location. (4) Find out what the customer wants simply by asking him. Beware of "lollipops"--extras and frills that don't pay their way. (5) Market oriented managers must place high priority on touching base with their outlets. (6) Coordinate marketing promises and claims with employee actions and statement. (7) Make sure you keep up to date with any new innovations your company may have or your competitors may have.

Lidstone, John. Recruiting & Selecting Successful Salesmen. London: Business Books Limited, 1976.

Companies have recognized that customers create a business, but only by keeping them satisfied can a company prosper. If they don't, others will. This means that every sales force must be recruited and selected, trained, motivated, and developed to perform as skillfully as it can its prime and vital task--the reason for this existence--to identify the needs of customers and satisfy them. Chapters in this book cover such topics as: basic concepts in recruiting and selecting salesmen; writing the job description; constructing an employee profile; how to recruit successful candidates; reference checking; the selection interview; making the final selection decision; induction training; and how to appraise the salesman's performance.

Phadnis, Dilip. "People Management--Training a New Product Manager." Product Marketing, Vol. 6 (April 1977), pp. 35-38.

Although a few major companies have formal training programs for their new product managers, most use the "sink or swim" educational system. The training of product managers has been neglected for several reasons including (1) the tremendous time pressures and crisis situations that beset all established marketers, (2) the changing role of product managers, (3) different "strains" of product managers themselves have different backgrounds, strengths, and weaknesses. Several ways to satisfy the training needs of

your new product manager include (1) Exposure to customers, markets, and the distributor retailer network. (2) Principles of marketing. (3) Working knowledge of operating department. (4) Advertising agency relationship. (5) Principles of finance. (6) Standard operating procedures. (7) Handling conflicts. (8) Managerial skills. (9) Interpersonal relationships.

Rosenau, Fred S. Tactics for the Educational Change Agent. A Preliminary Analysis. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education (DHEW), 1974. (ED 096 258, 95p.)

This prototype of a guide for educational change agents focuses on the roles and tactics of personnel employed in nonprofit educational research and development organizations and in state and intermediate education agencies. Included is a compilation of reports from recent users of three classes of tactics: information, demonstration, and field agent. These tactics are conceptualized as following an adoption/diffusion continuum whose stages can be labeled, step by step, from awareness through interest and evaluation to actual utilization. Change agent behavior is viewed as ranging from impersonal through personal to interpersonal. The organization of this paper reflects these underlying patterns. At the same time, behavioral sciences and marketing research are brought to bear in an effort to help explain the need for planning and evaluation strategies based on market segmentation, product differentiation, and communication skills. Case studies are briefly discussed, and a table of indicators is provided as a tentative guideline. In conclusion, some policy implications are outlined briefly with a view to initiating greater interaction among practitioners, diffusion personnel, behavioral scientists, and funding sources. A list of references is also provided.

PRODUCT EVALUATION

Alkin, Marvin C., & Wingard, Joseph. "User Oriented Product Evaluation." Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Symposium on Evaluation of Instructional Systems (Honolulu, Hawaii, September 3, 1972). (ED 067 899, 18p.)

While the educational product development field has expanded tremendously over the last 15 years, there is a paucity of conveniently assembled and readily interpretable information that would enable users to make accurate and informed evaluations of different, but comparable, instructional products. Minimum types of validation data which should be reported to users to assist them in their selections include those which delineate the instructional context of a product; the product's purposes, target population, effectiveness, and efficiency of installation and management. The lack of user-oriented validation data on instructional products is partially related to the myopia of product developers and evaluators (who view the development process as the concern of decision makers who are not necessarily users), is partially a function of commercial publishers' priorities, and is partially due to a lack of consumer demand.

Borg, Walter R. Some Thoughts About Product Evaluation at the Far West Laboratory. January 8, 1971. (ED 054 230, 9 p.)

Questions are discussed concerning the problem of evaluating an educational product for its potential marketing success. A strategy is proposed for identifying various levels of evaluation for a product, and for selecting the evaluation level that will be accepted as yielding sufficient evidence for the desirability of marketing the product.

"Early Learning Kits--25 Evaluations." Educational Product Report, No. 68, 8 (May/June 1975), pp. 1-88.

Professional analyses of the instructional materials are supplemented by informed opinion and user feedback. A checklist outlines the main elements of instructional design: aims and objectives, scope and sequence of content, teaching-learning methods, and evaluation.

Development and Evaluation of Evaluation for Program Improvement. Far West Series in Instructional Planning. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory, February 1975. (ED 106 977, 46p.)

This report is intended to provide a history of the development and evaluation of a set of training materials. The goal of this unit is to help school staff develop an understanding of the knowledge and skills necessary to identify, collect, organize, and analyze information useful in making decisions about program modification. The unit deals with the following topics: (1) identifying decisions to be made about program modification, and specifying who makes these decisions; (2) identifying alternative courses of action for decisions in the instructional management area; (3) determining what information is relevant to modification decisions; (4) taking responsibility for or contributing to a plan for program modification information; and (5) analyzing and reporting information. Described in this report are the parts of the unit, the program of development, testing, and field tests. A review of the unit by two specialists is summarized.

Secondary School Social Studies: Analysis of 31 Textbook Programs. EPIE Report, Vol. 71 (November/December 1975), pp. 1-96.

The analyses of 31 social studies materials are based on the way the developers have dealt with the intents of the products, the organization of the contents of the products, the methodology for the use of each product, and the means of evaluation of learning that each product provides.

Wilson, George. Learner Verification: A Publisher's Case Study. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association (Anaheim, CA, 1976). (ED 127 555, 9 p.)

Learner verification, a process by which publishers monitor the effectiveness of their products and strive to improve their services to schools, is a practice that most companies take seriously. The quality of educational materials may be ensured in many ways: by analysis of sales, through firsthand investigation, and by employing a system of evaluators within the school system. Two case studies are described, one detailing the failure of a product designed to aid in word recognition, the other outlining the use of an independent research group to predict teacher and student acceptance of a flexible instructional packet. While the analysis of educational needs and the pretesting of instructional materials may increase production costs, they can also prevent the proliferation of irrelevant products.

Broadband Communications for Rural Development? Yes--But We Will Need a Marketing Concept. Washington, D.C.: Congress of the U.S., Office of Technology Assessment, 1976. (ED 135 518, 29p.)

Widespread provision of non-entertainment services by way of telecommunications can have a significant impact on rural growth and public services and on rural-urban migration patterns if the mix of these services and the places where they are to be introduced are chosen within the context of a national rural policy, and if local residents perceive these services as important to their felt needs and as instrumental in the fulfillment of their community goals. Thus, a marketing function of quite special character must be built into the research design. A professional who understands "communications as a management function" needs to be positioned on the project staff. This "marketing director" would be responsible, on site, for: (1) building awareness within the community of the potential in broadband communications technology, presenting the array of potential services in such a way as to facilitate community choices; and (2) relating the plan to install the contemplated broadband communications system to the appropriate elements of a community development plan. The marketing function will be especially helpful in the collection of four kinds of data crucial to the research design: baseline opinion survey, an inventory of existing communications technology, a needs agenda, and the potential subscriber market.

"Chandler Accepts 1976 AMA Achievement Award for Kodak. Says Marketing Concept's Heart Is Imagination." Marketing News, Vol. 10 (July 16, 1976), pp. 1, 5.

Kodak's Colby H. Chandler said the essence of imagination is to see your company from the customer's point of view. Marketing helps companies to continually redefine their businesses while considering consumer needs. The success of Kodak's new instant cameras showed that a large corporation can be flexible and agile. Kodak began a radical marketing reorganization based on three imaginative and innovative approaches. They were--challenge existing assumptions about the market, create a built-in climate for innovation, and streamline the new-product-development structure. In Kodak's case, imagination about the instant camera promoted a synergistic effect, enlivening the whole market, but imagination is no good without a good grip on reality. Marketing research doesn't compromise imagination but focuses attention on things customers are interest in. Imagination can be communicated by advertising and demonstration.

Daniels, Carol B., Comp. "Special Education Market Report." Columbus, Ohio: National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped, 1977. (ED 146 756, 15p.)

The booklet provides general information on the special education market, with attention given to the relationship to the overall education market. Statistics are presented which relate to the amount of dollars spent in the field; reasons for difficulty in marketing media and materials for handicapped learners; allocation of funds as specified by P.L. 94-142 (Education of All Handicapped Children Act); the national budget; and the number of handicapped children (served and unserved). Also given is a list of information sources.

Dawson, Glenn E. "How Do We Compete With IBM?" Infosystems, Vol. 22 (June 1975), pp. 61-62.

IBM's success has been due to the development of systems which solve user problems, although at very high cost. Its competitors in the past have developed hot technological innovations but they were not useful to the user. IBM competitors must recognize that the key to success is the constant searching to identify basic user needs and the developing of system solutions to address those needs. Marketing and selling must relate the solution of user problem areas. The user must be shown the total solution and how to acquire the use of individual parts.

Hanneman, Gerhard J., et al. "Televised Drug Appeals; A Content Analysis." Storrs: University of Connecticut, Communication Research Program, 1972. (ED 082 249, 20p.)

Criticism of the role of the media in the dissemination of drug abuse information demonstrates a need for investigating the message characteristics of televised public service announcements criticizing the use of drugs. An analysis of anti-drug commercials telecast in Connecticut in December 1971 indicates that drug abuse messages are primarily telecast during "non-prime-time" periods. The messages generally contain little specific information, are not directed at identifiable audiences, and customarily use actors or sports celebrites as announcers. The message strategy is usually "fear appeal." The need for additional information about the audiences of public service announcements and the actual effects of telecast drug abuse messages is apparent.

Herman, Joan L. "Research and Development in the Toy Industry: Analogues for Education." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1976. (ED 124 559, 17p.)

A model of research and development in the toy industry is examined for information relevant to educational research. Three basic components (sales and marketing, preliminary design, and product design) are described. The author suggests that educational development should adopt a marketing perspective insofar as that entails conducting research and development with an eye on what will be acceptable in the classroom. Possible applications of the toy industry model are explored for the areas of needs assessment, prototype development and testing, decision-making, product development, and implementation and dissemination. For example, educators are urged to conduct research to determine sources of resistance to educational change and to uncover the market's preferences.

Leister, Douglas V.; MacLachlan, Douglas L. "Assessing the Community College Transfer Market: A Metamarketing Application." Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 47 (November/December 1976), pp. 661-680.

A conceptual model is proposed for strategic assessment of potential clientele groups of higher educational institutions. Market segmentation, a modern marketing tool for planning and strategy development, is illustrated with a particular four-year institution's analysis of its regional community college transfer market.

Lindquist, Mats G. "Growth Dynamics of Information Search Services." Journal of the ASIS, Vol. 29 (March 1978), pp. 67-76.

Computer-based information search services (ISSs) have experienced irregular growth despite an unpenetrated potential market. Continued development of this growth trend will lead to the eventual disuse of these systems. A computer simulation of an ISS model will yield the following conclusions: (1) The decline in the growth in the number of users of an ISS is a natural consequence of market responses to the operation of the ISS. (2) ISS management is caught between justification for expansion and inhibition of growth which result from long delivery delays. Appropriate marketing and user education can reduce the sensitivity to those delays. (3) Overemphasis on marketing is harmful for ISSs, developing a "marketing trap" through staff constraints. (4) An increase in the size of the potential market may not cause a subsequent increase in growth.

McEwen, William J., and Wittbold, George H. "Assessing the Persuasiveness of Drug Abuse Information." Storrs: Universtiy of Connecticut, Communication Research Program, 1972. (ED 082 266, 13p.)

The magnitude of the effect television has on young people's lives makes it an important source of drug abuse information, but there is a question as to whether or not such information is persuasive. Some studies indicate that viewer response to anti-drug television commercials falls into four judgmental dimensions: relevant persuasion, negative evaluation, creative stimulation, and the degree of "hard sell." Exploratory study at the University of Connecticut analyzed 114 students' responses to five commercials with different types of persuasive appeals. The findings of the study were inconclusive. For example, one commercial considered as "hard sell" (threatening or emotional) was perceived as low in persuasive and creative qualities and high in negative reactions, whereas another commercial of the "hard sell" nature was considered persuasive and effective. Results of this study indicate possibilities for future research on persuasive strategies and the effectiveness of statistical measurements to evaluate the effectiveness of these strategies.

Mellott, Douglas W., Jr. Marketing: Application and Cases. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing Co., Inc., 1978.

This book includes twenty-nine case studies of how companies went about marketing specific products. Several can be tied rather closely to specific aspects in marketing, e.g., Case 5, Amana Refrigeration, Inc. (the processes of adoption and diffusion); Case 8, The Ford Motor Company's Mustang I & II (marketing research and market segmentation); Case 20, B.F. Goodrich: "We're the Other Guys" (the promotional mix-advertising); Case 23, At Avon-You Never Looked So Good (the promotional mix--personal selling, special promotional services, and public relations).

St. John, Michael G. "Learn From The Airlines." Marketing Times, Vol. 20 (November/December 1973), pp. 17-19.

Airline industry marketers have tried almost everything in every media to sell their service; they've come up with a constant stream of innovations. Airline marketing techniques delve deep into consumer psychology. They explore every avenue of communication from direct-mail to fantasy theater. In spite of price controls, airline fares have become flexible through a vast array of package deals. Fanciful titles like Rickshaw Romance or Gimmick Getaways include car rental, hotel, sightseeing, theater tickets, mid-morning snacks, tips, mysterious hostess services and even portfolios with addresses and other useful information. Passengers aren't automatically won over to airline A because of a free breakfast in bed but price packages are here to stay. Airlines are spending thousands of dollars defining their image--via ads, decor, direct-mail. Just think of an airline and its image pops up.

Scribner, Charles, Jr. "The Buck Hill Falls Report, The Changing Nature and Scope of the School and Library Market. Are New Marketing Techniques Needed?" New York: American Book Publishers Council, Inc., 1967. (ED 020 747, 143p.)

Publishers, librarians, and educators met to discuss the current school and library market for books and other instructional materials in an effort to increase understanding of their respective roles in meeting the greater demands made upon them by the adoption of improved education as a national policy. After an examination of federal educational legislation and its implications for the publishing industry, the economics and financing of the school and library market are discussed, beginning with an address on library expenditures for published materials, followed by reaction from the publishing industry and panel comments representing school, college public library, wholesaler, paperback publisher, and diversified publisher viewpoints. Critical publishing decisions are analyzed with special reference to children's, adult, and paperback books and to the college, school, and school library market. A paper on the professional responsibility for book selection opens the session on relative effects of promotion and marketing upon book selection, followed by comments on five aspects of promotion--space advertising, book reviews, exhibits and meetings, catalogs and direct mail, and public relations. The changes in book distribution to schools and libraries are considered, and the conference closes with an appeal to produce quality materials for every child.

Stuart, C. R., Jr. "Image Building Goes Beyond Specific Marketing Campaigns at Bank of America." U.S. Investor/Eastern Banker, Vol. 87 (October 18, 1976), pp. 17-19.

A crucial part of banking marketing is to build a favorable image which opens up new markets for banks services. The Bank of America's image building program, of which marketing is a part, involves participating in community affairs and furthering the welfare of those in its areas of operation. This is done through sponsoring art exhibits, aiding PBS TV, furthering educational efforts, etc. The bank's image building effort also seeks to attract the professional and academic community to its new banking services tailored specifically to them. The printed media subscribed to by these higher income groups is being used, as is direct mail, to reach them. The academic community, or college students, are being reached by the bank's active involvement in educational loans and in-service designed especially to meet their needs. Radio, TV, and college newspapers are being used to reach this audience.

"Toy Marketing Isn't Kid Stuff." Media Decisions, Vol. 11 (May 1976), pp. 66-69.

In toys, innovation is the name of the game. To succeed, the marketing-media strategists each year must come up with a new product that's a winner, and the right advertising to go with it. This must be accomplished without the benefit of test marketing. There are 7 characteristics of the toy business: (1) Up to 40 percent of the annual volume will be in a new product. Manufacturers most often force viable products out of the market by proliferating new fads too fast. (2) Sense a trend, get in--sense an end, get out. It is more feasible to capitalize on fads created by others. (3) Christmas 1977 toys must be wrapped up before Christmas 1976 toys are sold. (4) The only consumer brand loyalty is negative consumer brand loyalty. (5) There's no such thing as a test market. (6) It's a two-and-a-half month year. (7) The greater the consumer demand, the less likely the retailer will make money on it.

Williams, Randall. "Marketing 'Outward Bound.'" European Journal on Marketing, Vol. 11, No. 6 (1977), pp. 475-488.

The Outward Bound schools have been suffering a problem of underutilization of their services except during peak summer periods. This trend has resulted in cash flow problems due to the need to keep staff and facilities operational year-round. The underutilization of the services during off-peak times can be traced to such factors as the economic situation in the U.K. in the last 5 years, the intangibility of the results of an Outward Bound experience, the lack of positive evidence that the experience has better fitted participants for their jobs, and the necessity for travel to arrive at the facilities. It appears that the short-term marketing effort should be in 2 directions: (1) putting the emphasis on the benefit to the individual, and (2) putting the emphasis on the benefit to the organization for which the individual works. A differentiated marketing effort should be applied to each of these areas.

MARKETING GAMES

Jaski, Ernest B. "Student Stimulation through Simulation." Journal of Business Education, Vol. 52 (December 1976), pp. 120-121.

Describes the development, use, and outcomes of a simulation decision-making game designed to help close the classroom/business relevancy gap in a marketing course at Southwest College, Chicago. Notes plans for city-wide use of the successful simulation.

Koeninger, Jimmy G. The Merchandising Game. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Distributive Education Materials Laboratory. (ED 112 236, 30 p.)

The decision-making game is built on a model which adheres to the economic principles of supply and demand. Game participants are faced with the task of generating profit in a simulated competitive situation. The game provides the opportunity for participants to gain a greater understanding of: (1) the relationship between income and costs and resulting profit, (2) the complexity of the buying process, and (3) the income statement. An instructor's guide, worksheets for game players, and teacher information forms are included in the manual.

Sewall, Murphy A. "A Conversational Marketing Decision Game." Decision Sciences, Vol. 7 (April 1976), pp. 358-365.

A conversational marketing game is described and compared to batch games. The concept of conversational decision games as an aid to marketing education has been found to be viable. Such games have several advantages over batch mode games. The most important advantage unique to a conversational game is the immediate feedback provided to the student. The product-management game described also has several desirable features not currently available in other games. The game is designed for individual students who proceed at their own pace. Each student has an opportunity to ultimately solve the marketing strategy problem and succeed in the game. Furthermore, the administrative load placed on the instructor is far less than for a batch mode game. The program for the product-management game is written in UNIVAC Basic. A copy of the program and student materials is available from the author.

Appendix A: A Systematic Marketing Audit, as outlined by Philip Kotler in Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), pp. 57, 62, 69.

A Systematic Marketing Audit

Part I. The Marketing Environment Review

A. *Markets*
1. Who are the organization's major markets and publics?
2. What are the major market segments in each market?
3. What are the present and expected future size and the characteristics of each market or market segment?

B. *Customers*
4. How do the customers and publics feel toward and see the organization?
5. How do customers make their purchase or adoption decisions?
6. What is the present and expected future state of customer needs and satisfaction?

C. *Competitors*
7. Who are the organization's major competitors?
8. What trends can be foreseen in competition?

D. *Macroenvironment*
9. What are the main relevant developments with respect to demography, economy, technology, government, and culture that will affect the organization's situation?

Part II. The Marketing System Review

A. *Objectives*
10. What are the organization's long-run and short-run overall objectives and marketing objectives?
11. Are the objectives stated in a clear hierarchical order and in a form that permits planning and measurement of achievement?
12. Are the marketing objectives reasonable for the organization given its competitive position, resources, and opportunities?

B. *Program*
13. What is the organization's core strategy for achieving its objectives, and is it likely to succeed?
14. Is the organization allocating enough resources (or too many) to accomplish the marketing tasks?
15. Are the marketing resources allocated optimally to the various markets, territories, and products of the organization?
16. Are the marketing resources allocated optimally to the major elements of the marketing mix; i.e., product quality, personal contact, promotion, and distribution?

C. *Implementation*
17. Does the organization develop an annual marketing plan? Is the planning procedure effective?
18. Does the organization implement control procedure (monthly, quarterly, etc.) to insure that its annual plan objectives are being achieved?
19. Does the organization carry out periodic studies to determine the contribution and effectiveness of various marketing activities?
20. Does the organization have an adequate marketing information system to service the needs of managers for planning and controlling operations in various markets?

D. *Organization*

21. Does the organization have a high-level marketing officer to analyze, plan, and implement the marketing work of the organization?
22. Are the other persons directly involved in marketing activity able people? Is there a need for more training, incentives, supervision, or evaluation?
23. Are the marketing responsibilities optimally structured to serve the needs of different marketing activities, products, markets, and territories?
24. Do the organization's personnel understand and practice the marketing concept?

Part III. Detailed Marketing Activity Review

A. *Products*

25. What are the main products of the organization? What are the generic products?
26. Should any products in the line be phased out?
27. Should any products be added to the line?
28. What is the general state of health of each product and the product mix as a whole?

B. *Price*

29. To what extent are prices set on cost, demand, and/or competitive criteria?
30. What would the likely response of demand be to higher or lower prices?
31. How do customers psychologically interpret the price level?
32. Does the organization use temporary price promotions, and how effective are they?

C. *Distribution*

33. Are there alternative methods of distributing the product that would result in more service or less cost?
34. Does the organization render adequate service along with product to its customers?

D. *Personal Contact*

35. Is the sales force large enough to accomplish the organization's objectives?
36. Is the sales force organized along the proper principles of specialization (territory, market, product)?
37. Does the sales force show high morale, ability, and effort? Is it sufficiently trained and motivated?
38. Are the procedures adequate for setting quotas and evaluating performances?

E. *Advertising*

39. Does the organization adequately state its advertising objectives?
40. Does the organization spend the right amount on advertising?
41. Are the themes and copy effective?
42. Are the media well-chosen?

F. *Publicity*

43. Does the organization have a carefully formulated program of publicity?

G. *Sales Promotion*

44. Are sales promotions used by the organization, and are they well-conceived?

Appendix B: Major Segmentation Variables and Their Typical Breakdowns, as described by Philip Kotler in Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), pp. 103-104.

Major Segmentation Variables and their Typical Breakdowns

Variables	*Typical Breakdowns*
Geographic	
Region	Pacific; Mountain; West North Central; West South Central; East North Central; East South Central; South Atlantic; Middle Atlantic; New England
County size	A; B; C; D
City or S.M.S.A. size	Under 5,000–19,999; 20,000–49,999; 50,000–99,999; 100,000–249,999; 250,000–499,999; 500,000–999,-999; 1,000,000–3,999,999; 4,000,000 or over
Density	Urban; suburban; rural
Climate	Northern; Southern
Demographic	
Age	Under 6; 6–11; 12–17; 18–34; 35–49; 50–64; 65+
Sex	Male; female
Family size	1–2; 3–4; 5+
Family life cycle	Young, single; young, married, no children; young, married, youngest child under 6; young, married, youngest child 6 or over; older, married, with children; older, married, no children under 18; older, single; other
Income	Under $5,000; $5,000–$7,999; $8,000–$9,999; $10,000–$14,999; over $15,000
Occupation	Professional and technical; managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical, sales; craftsmen, foremen; operatives; farmers; retired; students, housewives; unemployed
Education	Grade school or less; some high school; graduated high school; some college; graduated college
Religion	Catholic; Protestant; Jewish; other
Race	White; Negro; Oriental
Nationality	American; British; French; German; Eastern European; Scandinavian; Italian; Spanish; Latin American, Middle Eastern; Japanese and so on.
Social class	Lower-lower; upper-lower; lower-middle; middle-middle; upper-middle; lower-upper; upper-upper
Psychographic	
Life style	Swinger; status seeker; plain Joe; etc.
Personality	Compulsive; gregarious; conservative; ambitious; etc.
Benefits sought	Economy; convenience; dependability; prestige; etc.
User status	Nonuser; potential user; first-time user; regular user; ex-user
Usage rate	Light user; medium user; heavy user
Loyalty status	None; medium; strong; absolute
Readiness stage	Unaware; aware; informed; interested; desirous; intending to buy

Appendix C: The Discrepancy Model, from Linda A. Sikorski and C.L. Hutchins, "A Study of the Feasibility of Marketing Programming for Educational R&D Products" (San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1974), pp. 10-13.

The Discrepancy Model

In our work at FWL, we knew we could not demonstrate the usefulness of market segmentation for educational dissemination/diffusion unless we could choose a basis for segmenting which had clear-cut implications for change behavior. After much deliberation, we came up with a "discrepancy model" to use as a basis for market segmentation and as a guide for market selection and marketing strategy development. The model develops from two premises: first, change will not occur if there are discrepancies between the potential user and the requirements of a product; second, the educational market can be segmented on the basis of these discrepancies. That is, we can effectively tailor change efforts according to the descrepancies we find.

Discrepancies occur because the nature of the product (the need it addresses, the incentives relevant to its adoption, and its philosophical slant) is incompatible with the nature of the user (his needs, his perception of incentives, his beliefs). Discrepancies also arise between the circumstances for using the product (resources required, adoption convenience) and the resources and tolerances of the user. There are numerous possible kinds of descrepancies: in the area of need,

discrepancies may occur because the program addresses a grade level with which the potential adopter is unconcerned; because it is a supplementary program and the potential adopter needs a complete program; because it is designed to be used for several grade levels of one subject while the potential adopter wants a program for several subjects at one grade level, and so forth.

The philosophical slant of the program may be incompatible with that of a potential user. There may be discrepancies between the theoretical bases and the approach of a program, and the beliefs and values of the user. In the area of adoption convenience, a program may be rejected because a demonstration unit is not easily accessible for a potential adopter to observe, or the program does not fit into the established curriculum.

So far, we have defined 34 potential discrepancies (see Figure 1).

For any particular product, some potential discrepancies will be important and some will not. For example, if product use requires no training or reorganization, adoption convenience discrepancies which stem from such requirements will probably never occur. It is conceivable, however, that users may desire reorganization or training as part of the program and will therefore find the product incompatible. On the other hand, for those products which do have training or reorganization, these potential discrepancies are very important to consider.

FIGURE 1

List of Potential Discrepancies for Adoption/Implementation*

Needs	Incentives	Philosophy	Resources	Adoption Convenience
Discrepancies between the user's needs and the needs addressed by the product.	Discrepancies between the support or justification desired or required by the adopting system and that which is available.	Discrepancies between the general philosophical orientation of the adopting system and the nature of the product.	Discrepancies between the material, human, and temporal requirements of the product and the resources of the user.	Discrepancies between the state of the adopting system and what will be required to easily adopt/implement the product.
Target group addressed.	Early/late knowledge of results (feedback)	Sequential/nonsequential curriculum	Financial cost (includes initial and maintainance, cost of equipment, release time cost, etc.)	Core/elective subject (is it an established part of the curriculum?)
Complete/supplementary	Priority (how product relates to user)	Structured/unstructured curriculum	Materials required	Purchase accessibility
Horizontal/vertical (for one grade level or for more than one)	High/low probability of outside funding support	Programmed/nonprogrammed	Physical space	High/low demonstrability
Type of effect (outcome, what it does)	Peer opinion (how others feel about the product)	Theoretical basis	Time	High/low adaptability
Subject matter	Bandwagon (influence of other adopters)	Self-sufficiency (teacher-proofness)	Personnel required	High/low divisibility
Product/process (an object or a way of doing things		Developer (acceptability of developer)	Administrative arrangements	Unit of adoption (who must decide)
		Type of evaluation		Reorganization required
				Training required
				Disruptiveness
				Information accessibility

The status of any particular potential adopting unit in regard to each of the 34 potential discrepancies can be characterized as follows:

0- No discrepancy, either because the identified discrepancy is irrelevant or because the product or circumstances for using the product are perfectly acceptable to the adopting unit.

1- A discrepancy exists, but it would probably not prevent adoption.

2- A discrepancy exists, and it is likely to prevent adoption.

3- There is a major discrepancy. The product will not be adopted as long as this discrepancy exists.

Thus, each potential adopting unit (for example, each of a number of school districts) would have a series of 34 scores, like this:

District 1	1022330011133000303033131322221000
District 2	2331321112333202331222221122001010
District 3	3003030303302131213120001000100010

The notion here is that the educational market, or the population of potential adopters for a given product, can be partitioned into segments characterized by particular patterns and magnitudes of discrepancies in relation to that product. Each segment would be characterized by a particular set of 0's, 1's, 2's, and 3's.

Once the market is segmented, the educational marketer is ready to decide whether and how to reach particular segments. The decision regarding

whether to attempt to influence a segment can be based on its size and its composition and on the kind and magnitude of discrepancies which characterize the segment. The devising or choice of a strategy for reaching a segment (or for reaching a set of segments) is carried out with the purpose of reducing or eliminating discrepancies. For the strategist, 0's are considered to present no problem. 1's and 2's signal problem areas, where he should focus his efforts. 3's signal real danger; if he can't change them, he may as well forget those clusters where there are 3's. The process of deciding how to reach a segment is essentially intuitive: however, ultimately we expect to be able to assign probabilities of success to different kinds of strategies with different kinds of segments.

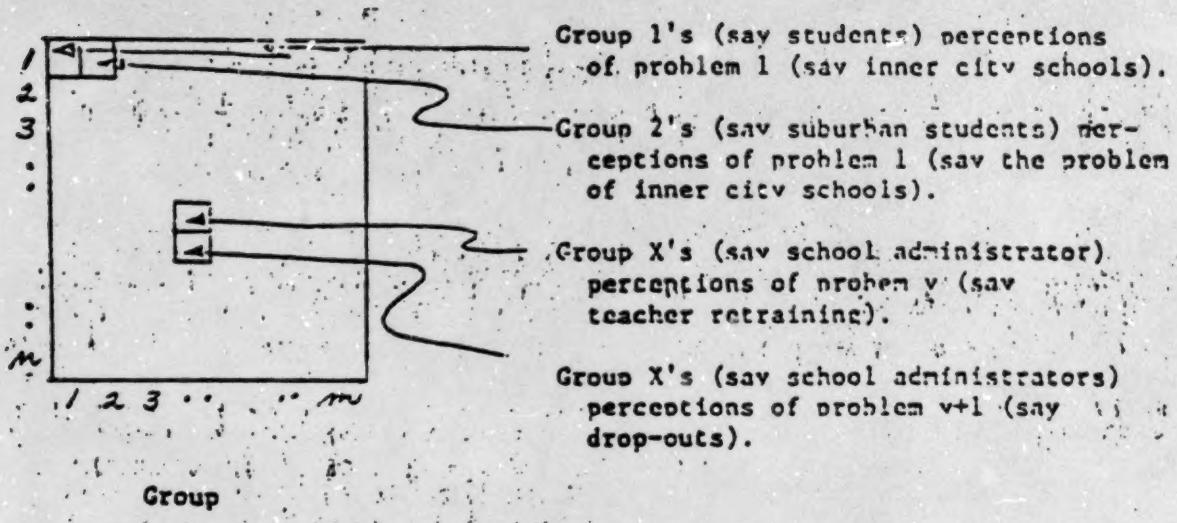
Appendix D: Operational Procedures for Monitoring the Educational Environment, from Philip Kotler, et al., "The Role of Marketing in a National Institute of Education" (Preliminary Report of a Planning Conference, April 2-3, 1972), pp. 5-8.

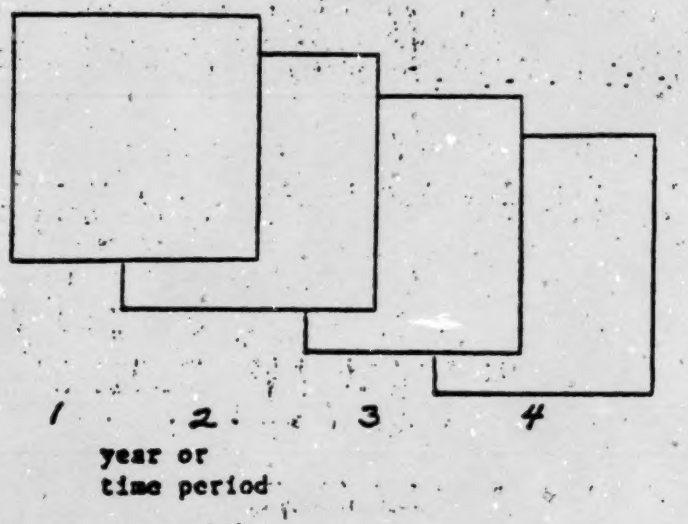
Operational Procedures for Monitoring the Educational Environment

The monitoring of the Problem Areas of education would be conducted with the aid of a panel composed of education's principal "publics." Greatest emphasis would fall on subsamples composed of the populations noted above under NEEDS and ABILITIES: Students, Educators, Parents, Employers, "Tax Payers," Politicians, School Administrators, and representatives of concerned sectors of Government, Science and Private Enterprise.

In dealing with each of the "publics," an effort would be made to tap their special knowledge and interest in the topics. As far as possible an effort would be made to learn how perceptions of the problem, value of it, preferences for means of dealing with it and values associated with these perceptions and preferences vary across and within each group (or public). Time profile by problem across groups and by group across problems would emerge as a way to map where education is and where it has been in terms of its most pressing problems.

Diagrammatically,

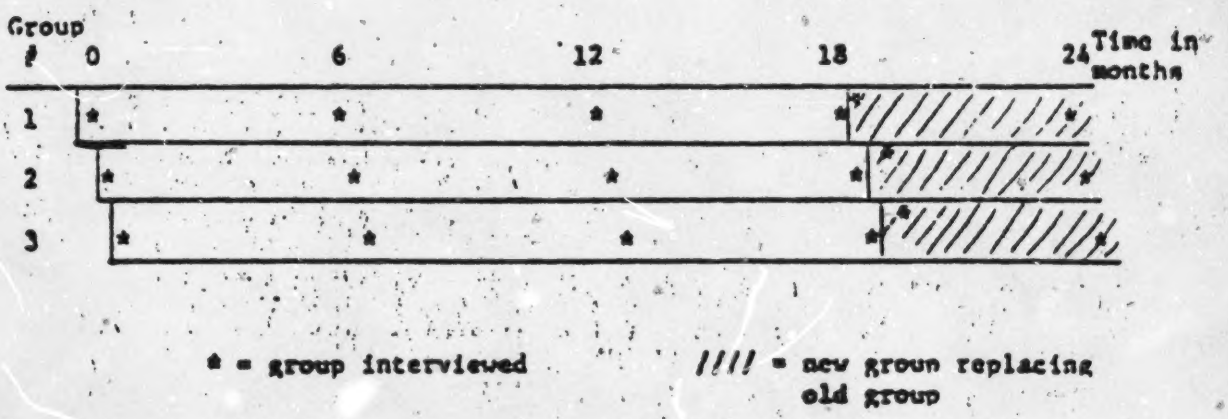

1
2
3
m
1 2 3 m
Group
Group 1's (say students) perceptions of problem 1 (say inner city schools).
Group 2's (say suburban students) perceptions of problem 1 (say the problem of inner city schools).
Group X's (say school administrator) perceptions of problem y (say teacher retraining).
Group X's (say school administrators) perceptions of problem y+1 (say drop-outs).



Above, the group by problem by time is the basis for the mapping. Each year the perceptions, values and preference would be measured for the key groups and problems. Five to ten key problems and about ten key groups would be examined annually. Subjects would be remeasured in a panel design permitting direct examination of year-to-year changes. Each

year at least half the subjects would be reinterviewed and no subject would be reinterviewed more than three times.

The above basic design can be made more flexible to accommodate the monitoring of attitudes and performance indices about methods and programs. Where practical, the same panel members would be surveyed about selected critical problems and about methods and programs. Particularly in the case of programs and methods, the germane subject matter differs from public to public and from time to time. All subjects would not be covered across all publics on each contact with respondents. Also, to review methods and programs of great current interest about which information is needed more regularly or in greater depth, a more flexible panel design is required that can quickly reach special interest publics. Such a panel would cover basic publics but small, new groups of respondents being added and dropped from the sample on a regular basis. Therefore, a group of respondents drawn by quota from appropriate publics or interest groups would be added each month. They would be interviewed on entry and at the end of several succeeding six-month intervals before being replaced.



Assume a group has 500 respondents and 18 groups enter before Group 1 leave the panel, after its fourth interview contact. Panel has 9000 members at any one time and 2000 are covered by interview each month.

This design, when respondents are assigned by quota across publics and polled about problems methods and programs provided a very flexible procedure for monitoring the educational environment. NIE will receive the desired measurements for problem areas, methods and programs, and can compare them across time periods and publics. Also, new topics can be introduced and old ones dropped in any public subgroups as NIE needs to know and the environment changes may dictate.

Appendix E: The Channels of Distribution--a description of member function and management from Philip Kotler, et. al., "A Marketing Approach to the Development and Dissemination of Educational Products" in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1977), pp. 33-37.

Functions Performed by Channel Members. Members of the channel of distribution must perform three basic types of functions: exchange, distribution, and facilitation. The exchange function involves the actual buying and selling of the product or innovation. In the direct channel depicted in Exhibit 7, the producer and consumer would perform the selling and buying functions, respectively. In more complex channels of distribution, several channel members may perform each of these roles.

The distribution function involves the actual transportation, and sometimes storage, of the product. Sometimes the producer may perform this function by sending the product to the consumer through the mail or some other mode of transportation, while in other instances either an intermediary or the consumer may perform this function.

Finally, there are a number of facilitative functions performed by channel members which expedite the exchange process. These include providing financing for purchases, informing potential consumers about the product, and assuming the risk associated with the introduction of a new product, (e.g., R&D costs). Different members of the channel of

distribution may perform each of these facilitative functions. An intermediary may provide financing for the purchase of expensive educational innovations. A producer may take charge of disseminating information about the product. And a facilitative agency such as NIE may assume much of the risk associated with a new product introduction by providing funding for the project.

These three basic functions are inviolate, though they may be performed by different channel members in different situations. The decisions regarding who shall perform these functions whould be based on an assessment of who can perform them most efficiently. This, like other channel decisions, is a function of characteristics of the product, the market, and the producer.

The Impact of Characteristics of the Product on Channel Decisions. Four major characteristics of the product impact on channel decisions:

(1) knowledge required to sell the product,

(2) service requirements of the product,

(3) perishability of the product, and

(4) unit value of the product.

If substantial knowledge is required to communicate effectively about the product then a direct channel in which the producer performs the "selling" function is usually most appropriate. This is because the intermediaries available are unlikely to have or be motivated to acquire the knowledge necessary to do an effective job of disseminating the

product. Similarly, the service required by the product also influences channel decisions. If the product requires servicing by technically trained personnel, intermediaries are typically not used because they are unlikely to be able to perform the service function effectively. Products which are highly perishable are also likely to be distributed through special intermediaries. Educational innovations may be perishable in the sense that their value is diminished if they are not distributed rapidly. Finally, the unit value of the product influences selection of a channel of distribution. If the unit value of a product is low, direct distribution may be impractical since it will probably increase the cost of the product substantially (direct distribution is typically more costly than going through intermediaries).

The Impact of Characteristics of the Market on Channel Decisions. Two characteristics of the market, the extent and concentration of demand, and consumers' buying patterns, influence the selection of a channel of distribution. If demand is extensive and concentrated in a particular area, a producer may find it worthwhile to use a direct channel of distribution and gain the benefits of having well-trained, specialized representatives. On the other hand, when demand is less extensive and geographically dispersed, intermediaries are likely to result in more efficient distribution. The buying patterns of the target must also be considered in making the channel decision. When purchases are small and frequent, indirect channels of distribution are typically used.

The Impact of Characteristics of the Producer on Channel Decisions. Finally, two attributes of the producer or developing organization affect channel decisions, (1) size and resources of the producer and (2) breadth of product line of the producer. If the producer is large and has substantial experience with the target market and the innovation, then direct distribution may be attractive. Thus, a large organization which specializes in educational products may find it worthwhile to maintain its own sales force. On the other hand, a small organization and/or one which has little expertise with educational products may wish to use an indirect channel. Similarly, if an organization has a broad product line across which the costs of direct distribution can be spread, it may be more practical to maintain a direct channel of distribution than if it produces relatively few products.

Managing the Channel of Distribution. A channel of distribution is a loose coalition of organizations that through cooperation seek to move goods to ultimate users. While these organizations share the common goal of moving goods to users, they also have separate goals which may work against achievement of the common goal. Specifically, while organizations concerned with the diffusion of educational innovations, such as laboratories (e.g., Far West), REA's and SEA's, may share the common goal of moving education innovations to users, they also may have conflicting goals. In fact, these organizations may be competing for funds, power, and prestige in the education arena. How, then, can these organizations be motivated to cooperate to insure the efficient movement of educational innovations to the ultimate user?

Several strategies may be employed to increase the efficiency of the channel of distribution. First, it may be appropriate to identify a "channel captain" of an organization which will be the driving force behind the channel of distribution. In an education setting NIE might play the role of the captain. It is important that the channel captain's primary objective be the efficient movement of goods to the user. The channel captain may then attempt to structure the channel of distribution and the rewards in the channel of distribution so that other channel members focus on this common objective, rather than their own organizational objectives.

To facilitate cooperation in the channel of distribution, the channel captain may attempt to implement specific policies designed to reduce or resolve differences between channel members. For example, an exchange of persons strategy might be instituted. Under such a strategy, senior personnel from one organization in the channel spend time working in an organization at another level in the channel. Thus, an administrator from an REA might spend six months working in a laboratory such as Far West, and vice-versa. This would enable the channel members to better appreciate each other's problems and goals and thereby would reduce conflict to a more functional level. Another strategy which might be employed is establishment of a mediation procedure to resolve differences which do arise between channel members. Mediation helps resolve conflict since channel members make concessions to a mediator rather than to each other.

Finally, effective management of the channel of distribution requires that the channel captain institute feedback procedures in the channel. Consumer needs are constantly changing and channel members, particularly those who are in direct contact with the consumer, should be trained to monitor and feed back information about such changes. The channel captain may regularly survey members of the channel to facilitate such feedback.

Appendix F: Principles of Diffusion Research, from "Implications of Diffusion Research for RDx," by Gerald Zaltman and Linda Sikorski, in Information Dissemination and Exchange for Educational Innovations (Evanston, IL: Northwestern University, 1977).

1. A planned diffusion process is significantly more likely to succeed than an unplanned diffusion process.
2. The more explicit and detailed the planning process is, the more complete or total the diffusion of an innovation will be. The diffusion process will also be more rapid than would otherwise be the case.
3. Innovations diffuse in response to the interaction of a unit of adoption with its environment.
4. The greater the discrepancy between a school system and an important element of the environment such as a major unit of city government, the less innovative the social system will be.
5. It is important to identify and distinguish among the needs of persons in many different social roles within a school system.
6. RDx diffusion strategies must consider where the various role holders are in their acquisition of their roles and what implications this has for structuring innovations, information, and assistance.
7. Innovation diffusion may depend upon individuals within adopting organizations taking on new roles.
8. Diffusion is improved when there exist mechanisms for training participants to take on new roles.

9. Diffusion is faster among systems with centralized decision authority, but it is perhaps more effective and complete among systems with participative decision-making structures.
10. Diffusion concerns begin at the earliest stages of innovation development, where decisions on product form determine its ultimate communicability, complexity/radicalness, perceived advantage, and compatibility.
11. Innovations should be routinely and periodically reviewed and the resources spent to diffuse them justified according to impact and marketability criteria.
12. Diffusion of a particular innovation is likely to be easiest shortly after its introduction, then progresively more difficult as substitutes or competing innovations enter the field and/or diffusion approaches saturation.
13. The RDx should distinguish among the following stages: initiation, implementation, and resolution.
14. The RDx should be sensitive to the informal as well as formal aspects of the organizations identified as potential adopters.
15. An explicit decision should be made whether to approach the most likely or the least likely schools to adopt an innovation.
16. The RDx should select schools on the basis of the degree of felt or perceived need for change.
17. A change agency should determine that a strong degree of commitment to change exists in both the formal and informal systems of schools before proceeding with a major diffusion effort.

18. Change should not be undertaken if the school system does not possess the necessary financial and human resources to (a) accept change, and (b) sustain change.
19. A change agency should consider the possibility of a heterogeneous audience of potential adopters.
20. The RDx should assume that potential adopters will vary in terms of where they are in a decision process.
21. Tactics which involve personal contact are good for obtaining commitments and influencing the change process.
22. Tactics which involve extra "work" on the part of the receivers tend to mediate better learning and more commitment.
23. When a diffusion/change planner has only limited resources, he must attend to dimensions of tactics such as cost, potential coverage, and repeatability.
24. The change planner must also consider whether the tactic chosen is appropriate to the change state being facilitated.

Appendix H: Marketing Research, from Philip Kotler, Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975), pp. 264-269

Problem Definition. The first step in the conduct of research calls for a careful definition of the problem. If the problem is stated vaguely, if the wrong problem is defined, or if the uses of the research are not made clear, then the research results may prove useless to the manager.

The poor definition of the problem is often the fault of the manager requesting the study. Thus a top administrator in the U.S. Postal System might ask the marketing research director to find out everything he can about public attitudes toward the postal system. The marketing research director has a right to feel uneasy about the assignment. It is too general. It is not clear how much interviewing should be done of nonusers, light users, and heavy users of the postal system. It is not clear what aspects of the postal system they should comment on: personnel, postage cost, delivery reliability, speed, and so on. Although all this information would be interesting, none may help management come any closer to making good policy decisions. There is something sterile about facts that are not made part of a larger model of decision-making alternatives that themselves come out of a definition of the real problem.

The kind of research assignment just mentioned is called exploratory research and this is mostly warranted in situations in which the organization's ignorance of the marketplace is substantial, and it may uncover much that is interesting. Yet the research effort is generally more efficient when the problem and alternatives are well-defined. This is because the cost of research is generally related to the total amount of information gathered, while the value of research is associated only with the proportion of information that is useful.

There is no magic formula for knowing how to define a research problem carefully enough, or to know whether it is the real problem. All that can be said is that too often organizations take the least time with problem definition and get into research design and field work prematurely.

Research Design. The problem definition stage should lead to the development of a clear set of research objectives stated in writing, if possible. The marketing research director faces a choice among many alternative ways to collect the information that will satisfy the research objectives. He must decide on the *data collection method*, *research instrument*, and *sampling plan*.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS. The first decision of the marketing researcher is how to gather the data he needs. In simple cases, the data already exists in an accessible form and he has simply to find it. This is called *secondary data*. It might be present in the organization's internal records; in advertising agencies, or professional associations; in government, commercial, or trade publications; or purchasable from marketing research firms. If the data are found in existing sources, the researcher has saved time and expense. However, he must be careful to evaluate

secondary data, because they have been collected for a variety of purposes and under a variety of conditions that may limit their usefulness. Marketing researchers should check these data for impartiality, validity, and reliability.

When satisfactory secondary data are not available, the researcher must collect *primary data*. The data can be gathered from customers, middlemen, salesmen, competitors, or other information sources. There are three basic primary data collection methods.

The first is *observation*, in which case the researcher attempts to learn about the problem through observing the relevant actors. For example, a museum could use the observational method to study the movement of visitors through the museum, the behavior of museum personnel toward the visitors, the popularity of different exhibits, and so on. In the last case, some museums judge the popularity of different exhibits by observing the amount of carpet wear-out next to each exhibit.[7]

At the other extreme of observation is *experimentation* as a method of gathering primary data. The experimental method consists of introducing selected stimuli into a controlled environment and systematically varying them. To the extent that extraneous factors are eliminated or controlled, the observed effects can be related to the variations in the stimuli. The purpose of control is to eliminate competing hypotheses that might also explain the observed phenomena. Marketers have applied this data collection method to such marketing problems as finding the best sales training method, the best incentive scheme, the best price level, the best ad campaign, and so on.[8]

A third method of generating primary data, and the most common, is through *surveys*. Compared with either direct observation or experimentation, surveys yield a broader range of information and are effective for a greater number of research problems. Surveys can produce information on socioeconomic characteristics, attitudes, opinions, motives, and overt behavior. Surveys are an effective way of gathering information for planning product features, advertising copy, advertising media, sales promotions, channels of distribution, and other marketing variables.

If the survey method is chosen, the researcher has three alternative methods available for reaching the group he wants to sample: telephone interviews, mail questionnaires, and personal interviews. *Telephone interviewing* stands out as the best method of the three for gathering quickly needed information. It has the advantage over a mail questionnaire of permitting the interviewer to talk to one or more persons and to clarify his questions if they are not understood. The response rate for telephone interviewing seems to be a little better than for mail questionnaires. The two main drawbacks of telephone interviewing are that only people with telephones can be interviewed (this used to be a more serious disadvantage) and only short, not too personal, interviews can be carried out.

The *mail questionnaire* may be the best way to reach persons who would not give personal interviews or who might be biased by interviewers. It is typically the least expensive of the three methods. On the other hand, mail questionnaires require simple and clearly worded questions and are usually slow in returning to survey headquarters. The response rate to mailed questionnaires is typically low.

Personal interviewing is the most versatile of the three methods. The personal interviewer can ask more questions and can supplement the interview with personal observations. These advantages come at a high cost, however. Personal interviewing is the most expensive method and requires much more technical and administrative planning and supervision. In a real sense, companies turn to telephone interviewing or mail questionnaires as a second choice for reasons of cost.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT. The researcher has to use or design a reliable research instrument to gather the information he is seeking. The observational methods make use of such instruments as tape recorders, cameras, tally sheets, and so forth. The experimental method might involve similar instruments if the subjects are put through a task. The survey method, and to some extent the experimental method, commonly rely on questionnaires.

The construction of good questionnaires calls for considerable skill. Every questionnaire should be pretested on a pilot sample of persons before being used on a large scale. A professional marketing researcher can usually spot several errors in a casually prepared questionnaire, and these errors can invalidate some of the information. The more common errors arise in connection with the *types of questions asked*, the *form and wording of the questions*, and the *sequencing of the questions*.

The most common errors in regard to the *types of questions asked* are the inclusion of questions that cannot be answered, or would not be answered, or need not be answered, and the omission of other questions which should be answered. Each question should be checked to determine whether or not it is necessary in terms of the research objectives. The form should avoid questions that are just interesting (except for one or two to start the interview on a good basis) because they lengthen the session and try the respondent's patience.

The *form and wording of questions* can make a substantial difference to the response. An open-end question is one to which the respondent is free to answer in his own words. A closed-end question is one in which the possible answers are prescribed. The respondent may be asked to respond in one or two ways (dichotomous questions), to check one of several answers (multiple-choice questions), to place marks along a scale (scaling questions), and so forth. The choice between open-end and closed-end questions affects the thoughtfulness of responses, the costs of interviewing, and the quality of the subsequent analysis.

The *choice of words* calls for considerable care. The designer should strive for simple, direct, unambiguous, and unbiased wording. A good rule is always to pre-test the questions on a sample of respondents before they are used on a wide scale.

Other "dos" and "don'ts" arise in connection with the *sequencing of questions* in the questionnaire. The lead questions should create interest, if possible. Open questions are usually better here. Difficult questions or personal questions should be used toward the end of the interview, in order not to create an emotional reaction that may affect subsequent answers or cause the respondent to break off the interview. The body of questions should be asked in as logical an order as possible in order to avoid confusing the respondent. Classificatory data on the respondent are usually asked for last, because they tend to be less interesting and are on the personal side.

SAMPLING PLAN. The third element of research design is a sampling plan. The sampling plan answers three questions: who is to be surveyed (sampling unit); how many are to be surveyed (sample size); and how they are to be selected (sampling procedure).

Perhaps the basic issue concerns who is to be surveyed. The proper *sampling unit* is not always obvious from the nature of the information sought. In a survey designed to uncover attitudes toward the legalization of marijuana, should the primary sampling unit be the housewife, the husband, the children, or some combination of the three? Where the roles of instigators, influencers, deciders, users, and/or purchasers are not combined in the same person, the researcher must determine not only what information is needed but also who is most likely to have it.

The next issue is *sample size*. Larger samples give more reliable results than smaller samples. However, it is not necessary to sample the whole universe or even a substantial part of it to achieve satisfactory precision. Samples amounting to less than 1 percent of the whole population can often give good reliability, given a creditable sample procedure. In exploratory research, very small samples suffice. Much insight about marketing processes and attitudes can be gained from a sample of fewer than 100 persons. In motivation-research studies, fewer than thirty depth interviews usually suffice to uncover significant attitudes.

Sampling procedure also depends upon the research objective. For exploratory research, nonprobability sampling procedure may be adequate. However, to make an accurate estimate of population characteristics, a random (probability) sample of the population should be drawn. Everyone in the universe should have an equal (or known) chance of being selected for the sample. Different types of persons tend to appear in the sample in rough proportion to their frequency in the population.

Random sampling allows the calculation of confidence limits for sampling errors. It is possible to place a specified degree of confidence in the precision of the sample estimates. One could say "the chances are ninety-five in a hundred that the interval '20 to 25 percent' contains the true percentage of people who attend a museum annually."

Unfortunately, random sampling is almost always more costly than non-random sampling. Some marketing researchers feel that the extra expenditure for probability sampling could be put to better use. Specifically, more of the money of a fixed research budget could be spent in designing better questionnaires and hiring better interviewers to reduce response and non-sampling errors, which can be just as fatal as sampling errors. This is a real issue, one that the marketing researcher and marketing executives must carefully weigh.

Field Work. After the research design has been formulated, the research department must supervise, or subcontract, the task of collecting the data. This phase is generally the most expensive and the most liable to error. Four major problems arise:

1. *Not-at-homes.* When an interviewer does not find anyone at home, he can either call back later or substitute the household next door. The latter is the less expensive alternative, because the interviewer will not have to travel back to the same block. The only problem is that there is no easy way to learn whether the adjacent household resembles the original one precisely, because no data were collected on the original. The substitution may be biasing.
2. *Refusal to cooperate.* After finding the designated individual at home,

the interviewer must interest the person in cooperating. If the time is inconvenient or if the survey appears phony, the designated person may not cooperate.

3. *Respondent bias.* The interviewer must encourage accurate and thoughtful answers. Some respondents may give inaccurate or biased answers in order to finish quickly or for other reasons.
4. *Interviewer bias.* Interviewers are capable of introducing a variety of unconscious biases into the interviewing process, through the mere fact of their age, sex, manner, or intonation. In addition, there is the problem of conscious interviewer bias or dishonesty. Interviewers face a great temptation to fill their quota of interviews as quickly or as cheaply as possible. This can be done by not making the required number of call-backs or claiming refusals to cooperate, or, in extreme cases, actually falsifying an interview.

Data Analysis. The fourth step in marketing research procedure is to attempt to extract meaningful information from the data. Anyone who has had the experience of amassing data knows that further work has to be done to reveal underlying magnitudes and patterns of association or causality. The first step is to calculate relevant averages and measures of dispersion. The second step is to cross-tabulate the data to produce useful tables. The third step is to measure correlation coefficients and perform goodness-of-fit tests. The fourth step is to attempt multivariate analysis of the data using such statistical techniques as multiple regression analysis, discriminant analysis, factor analysis, and cluster analysis.[8]

Report Preparation. The last step is the preparation of a managerially oriented report presenting the major findings and recommendations coming from the study. The report should begin with a short statement of the problem and the major findings. This should be followed by an elaboration of the findings. A brief description of the research method should follow, with the more technical details being saved for an appendix. Much of the data should also be appendixed. The last section should discuss the major reservations and qualifications. In general, the report should be written to facilitate the understanding and interest of the executives and their ability to derive actionable information.